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CONTENTS

PAGE

"In the Beginning, God—" 5
Rt. Rev. H. J. Mikell

Trends and Problems in State-Supported Teacher-Training Institutions 9
Ralph E. Wager

A Study of the Training of Teachers of English in Kentucky High Schools 26
M. A. Leiper

Translation for Literary Appreciation 32
Charles E. Little

The Value of Standards in Grading Examination Papers 38
L. A. Sharp

An Economical School Paper 46
O. B. Powell

Editorials 50
On the Contrary—
Standardizing Publishers' Announcements
The Loyola Educational Digest
The Textbook Editor
Experts or Bunglers—Which?
How Much There is Yet to Do!

The New Books on Our Shelf 55

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Ward-Belmont School — Nashville, Tennessee

PEABODY JOURNAL
OF EDUCATION

VOLUME 3 JULY 1925 NUMBER 1

"IN THE BEGINNING, GOD—"

RT. REV. H. J. MIKELL
Bishop of Atlanta (Episcopal)

It is our custom to give to each graduating class of George Peabody College for Teachers a word of counsel and congratulations from the board of trustees, and our president has to-day bidden me to deliver to you this message. I think that there are many of you who are going to find yourselves faced with a distinct difficulty. Well-meaning, but mistaken, persons have been busy in the South lately stirring up a conflict between education, for which you have been trained, and religion, to which, I am sure, you wish to be faithful. This conflict has centered about the subject of evolution. In some of our Southern states laws have been passed against the teaching of evolution in state-aided schools. In other states this law has been seriously suggested. I think that you are apt to find that in some schools in which you will teach county trustees will bring before you this same difficulty. Is there any attitude you can take which will safeguard your Christian principles and at the same time find a place for scientific truth and all the results of a real education and culture? Surely there is; so let us think for a moment of this subject.

It was before the beginning—a timeless emptiness, a vast void. And then there was the beginning. In this void appeared a burning, gaseous, gigantic something, a nebulous aggregate, and after times it formed into a fiery central concentration—our sun.

An address delivered to the graduating class, George Peabody College for Teachers, August, 1924.

Again, after times, the outer circles of the sun began to cool; and these cooling, congealing layers were thrown off, and formed the planets of our solar system, one of them the earth on which we dwell.

Then there came the æons of geologic ages—times of cooling waters and rocks jutting from receding seas, until the whole continents of dry lands had emerged and the waters had been gathered into oceans.

Then, one day, something new happened. There appeared a protoplasm—the living thing, the cell, the tissue, the organism; and life had come—plant life, with its mosses and ferns and palms.

Then, one day, again something new happened. There appeared an organism with a slightly different cell formation, and animal life climbed out of the slime of one of those warm geologic seas; and reptiles crawled on the earth, the giant, awkward animals roamed the land, and hairy apes chattered among the trees.

Then, one day, again a new thing happened. An animal stood up, erect; and though similar in structure to the other animals, he differed immeasurably from them. By reason of his superior brain, he had consciousness, will, memory; he had understanding of the world in which he lived, and by understanding he ruled it. Man had come. Man, as Professor Agassiz says, was the end toward which all the animal creation had tended, from the first appearance of the first Paleozoic fishes.

An evolution, yes; but also a revolution. For, as Prof. A. R. Wallace, the author of "Natural Selection," says: "From the moment when the first skin was used as a covering, when the first rude spear was used in the chase, when fire was first used to cook food, when the first seed was sown, a grand revolution was effected in nature—a revolution which in all the previous ages of the world's history had had no parallel; for a being had arisen who was no longer necessarily subject to change with the changing universe—a being superior to Nature, inasmuch as he knew how to control and regulate her action and could keep himself in harmony with her, not by a change in body, but by an advance in mind."

Man was thus placed apart as not only the head and culminating point of the grand series of organic nature, but as in some degree a new and distinct order of being.

Thus science, with its patient research, its earnest seeking, speaks. And one further word it says. There will come a day when the great central burning sun will lose its life-giving heat, and the earth will become a cold, dead planet, and man, with all his inventive skill and creative genius, will not be able to escape that chill extinction, and the skeleton of the last man will be embedded in the ice of a cold, dead world.

What is the cause of it all? Why the purposeless creation, the mocking waste of energy? Science gives no answer—does not pretend to know.

Then religion speaks, and it says:

I have an answer to these questions. All this theory of physical evolution I accept, but I read into it the mind and purpose of a Divine Creator. I say: In the beginning, God. And the Spirit of God moved over the face of the formless void, and creation began—light and heat and the earth, and life upon the earth, and man.

And then, I say, there was a day of which science gives no account, when another new thing happened. There was a day when this man, with his material brain and body, found himself endowed with another faculty—a spiritual soul. He developed a conscience, he discerned the difference between right and wrong, he aspired to communion with an invisible Maker. He stood up and looked around him, and not only consciously differentiated himself from the other animals, but also looked above him, and consciously linked himself with a higher spiritual power. "God said, Let Us Make Man in our Image, after Our Likeness.' So the Spirit of God came into man, and he became not only a highly developed animal, but a living soul.

The physical evolution ended; and spiritual evolution began, a gradually growing spiritual sense, a gradually strengthening contact between the spirit of man and the Spirit of God. God guided man, whom he had made the crown of creation, through a long spiritual development, unfolding to him his will and purpose, speaking through his prophets, making him expectant of another day when another new thing should happen.

And, as in those prehistoric times, the day came. The Spirit of God went forth again, and he overshadowed the Virgin in the town of Nazareth, and she conceived and brought forth a Son.

It was a new creative act of God—just as that day when the first cell germ of life appeared on the earth, just as that day when the first animal life crawled out of the sea, just as that day when the Spirit of God was breathed into man, and he had a soul. On each of these days, as one has said, there had been a sending, a coming, an arrival from God.

The happening on this day in Nazareth fits with the rest. It fits in with the truth that religion proclaims—that in the whole drama of creation, the action, the initiative, was from God.

God, now taking humanity upon himself, made a new humanity. He made a new start for the race which he had created so long before. Christ was the crown of spiritual evolution, just as man was the crown of physical evolution.

So man's religion has no conflict with man's science. It accepts scientific truth. It accepts the story of creation as science tells it, and gives it meaning. Religion breathes a purpose through scientific fact, as in Ezekiel's vision the Spirit of God breathed through the valley of dry bones and swept them into life. It goes on where science confesses that it must stop, and tells of new creative acts of God. To it the world is not a closed and unchangeable system, but is big with new possibilities of still unrevealed and undiscovered truths. It says that God is not dead nor grown immensely aged and incapable of work, but that he is still crying out: "Behold, I will do a new thing, for I create new heavens and a new earth."

So in his religion man speaks where in his science he was silent.

And now, like science, one further word religion says; but this is a word of life and not of death—a word, not of lifeless death on a cold material planet, but of deathless life in a spiritual realm. Jesus Christ had offered men the power to fulfill the purpose of their creation by becoming sons of God, and he had been met by a great refusal. He was crucified, dead, buried. Man believed that. But Jesus Christ was the Lord of life; so he challenged nature, which had buried all men, and a new nature responded. There came that third day, when another new, vastly significant thing happened. He arose from the dead.

It was still another creative act of God. It showed supremely that God was not merely the original source of life, the original architect of the universe, but that he was still creatively at work in his world, able and ready to make a new, spiritual creation, as he had before made the old, material world.

The resurrection of Jesus is the crucial moment in man's religious development. It explains the whole creation. It says that creation was not a vast, purposeless thing, an evolution of life that was to end only in extinction; that man, so splendidly endowed with powers and faculties of brain and body and spirit, was not merely to be snuffed out after a few short years of physical life.

So man's faith does not war against man's science and man's reason. It supplements them. It fills them with a purpose and a meaning. It dignifies and ennobles humanity. It tells man that he is not as the beasts that perish, but that he is the heir of eternal life. It spurs him on to moral and spiritual effort to make himself worthy of his high immortal destiny. It says that God, the Creator, had a great divine purpose in it all—to make and redeem a race of sons of God and endow them with spiritual faculties, and finally to give them an eternal spiritual life with him.

TRENDS AND PROBLEMS IN STATE-SUPPORTED TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

RALPH E. WAGER
Emory University

It is the purpose of this paper to present a body of data relating to the evolution of state teachers colleges out of state normal schools and to discuss certain problems which are manifestly involved in the change now occurring. During the past half decade the majority of state-supported teacher-training institutions have, in name at least, gone from the one status to the other. It is also apparent that many of the schools which have not yet done so will shortly make the change. Because of the significance of these institutions in the educational life of the states it is important that the nature of the change and the attendant problems be thoroughly examined and understood. In the present paper, four factors will be dealt with:

1. Briefly, some historical aspects of the functions of teacher-training schools;
2. The reasons assigned for making the change from normal school to teachers college;
3. Some fundamental factors involved;
4. Some attendant problems which appear significant.

SOME HISTORICAL ASPECTS OF TEACHER TRAINING

The normal schools of this country were established with a definite undertaking before them. They and our modern elementary schools grew up together and were planned to serve a common purpose, the one institution preparing teachers for the other in order that children might be better instructed. The general nature of the functions of the teacher-training schools was well set forth by Governor Everett, of Massachusetts, at the time of the founding of the first normal school in America. He stated the work of the school then instituted to be fourfold, as follows:

> First—A careful review of the branches of knowledge required to be taught in our common schools. The first object of instruction in the normal school is, as far as possible in the time assigned to its instruction, to go over the circle of branches required to be taught and see that the future teacher is thoroughly and minutely versed in them.
>
> Second—The second part of instruction in a normal school is the art of teach-

ing. There is a peculiar art of teaching. The subject should be taken up at its foundation, in those principles of our nature on which education depends; the laws which control the faculties of the youthful mind in the pursuit and attainment of truth, and the normal sentiment on the part of pupil and teacher, which must be brought into harmonious action.

Third—The third branch of instruction to be imparted in an institution concerns the important subject of the government of the school, and might perhaps more justly have been named first.

Fourth—In the last place, it is to be observed that in all the instruction and exercises within the limits of the normal school, properly so called, there is to be established a common, or district, school of practice, in which, under the direction of the principal in the normal school, the young teacher may have the benefit of actual exercises in the business of instruction.

In these words the able governor puts forward content, methodology, administration, and practice as the phases of the undertaking of a teacher-training institution.

Even before the establishment of normal schools the old-line academies in New York had been subsidized by state funds for the purpose of adding to their staff one who could give instruction in the principles of teaching. With their broad, extensive range of courses, these schools had been able to supply teachers well founded on the content side, though lacking knowledge of, and finish in, the artistry of teaching. Instruction in this new field marked, then, the beginning of the state's effort professionally to prepare her teachers.

This development in the New York academies marks also, it may be noted, the beginning of a conflict which is still more or less apparent between the so-called "professional" and the "academic" emphasis. The question is not yet settled. We are not yet clear as to how much or what kind of professional instruction in addition to the content of subjects a teacher needs to have. Indeed, the history of teacher-training institutions shows that the accent has been placed with rather uncertain assurance now on the one and now on the other of the two phases. Some have earnestly maintained that to know how to teach is the more important, while others, at the same time, have contended that to know thoroughly the content which is to be taught is far more significant. Not only have the academic and professional aspects been in conflict, but in some cases the philosophic as well. As various heads of normal schools have become impressed with the significance of one function over another, they have set up in their institutions machinery which has served to place strong emphasis on that which they have prized especially. It is clear, as one surveys the field, that nowhere and at no time have the teacher-training institutions as a group been thoroughly agreed upon matters of organization, function, point of emphasis, and the like. Doubtless this condition is such as

should be expected. Teacher training is new. Furthermore, each school has had its own problems by virtue of its peculiar social, economic, and educational environment. It is not too much to expect, however, that a reasonable degree of uniformity should evolve before long out of the experience thus far had.

Diversity of thought about training teachers is still further indicated in the fact that some states, such as Michigan, in the early history of their teacher-training institutions, patterned them very closely after the traditional liberal arts colleges, with a consequent emphasis upon academic classical study and very little, if any, upon the professional aspects of teaching. Of this sort were the institutions at Ypsilanti, established in 1852, and at Kalamazoo, founded somewhat later. Because of the emphasis therein upon academic training and the neglect of professional, dissatisfaction arose over the product, and reorganization was demanded and secured. Following the traditions on which they were founded, however, these institutions have for many years past maintained a four-year curriculum leading toward a degree, but supplying at the same time liberal professional preparation for those planning to teach.

Without attempting to trace in detail the histories of the movements involved, it is sufficient to say that almost from the beginning of the effort on the part of the states to train teachers for the schools there have been two levels or types of institutions: first, the normal school, with a two-year curriculum, organized primarily for the purpose of fitting teachers to work in the elementary grades; and, second, teachers colleges, organized on a four-year basis and granting degrees. These latter institutions have met the demand for elementary teachers by providing for their first two years a curriculum similar to that set up by the two-year normal schools.

Equally interesting in this connection is the fact that a number of institutions were given at their establishment the right to grant degrees, but never exercised it, believing it better to confine their efforts to a development which would function best in the training of elementary-school teachers. Such, for example, were some of the normal schools in Illinois.

For some years past there has been in this country a group of educators who have agitated vigorously for the universal establishment of the four-year degree-granting type of teacher-training institutions. The arguments they have used have been many and varied. It is unnecessary to review them at this point. Their efforts, however, have not been without avail. Results have also been arrived at from another direction. The public demand for trained teachers, the experience with college-made teachers without professional preparation,

the growth in knowledge of the technique of teaching and the conditions for learning, and the increase in specialization demanded by the schools have so far developed that it is now generally agreed that the two-year curriculum does not meet the present needs. As a consequence there has appeared a marked tendency to increase the training period for elementary teachers from two to three and, in some cases, four years. Along with other factors, this tendency to require more preparation has fitted in well with the agitation for the general establishment of four-year teacher-training schools, with the unavoidable consequence that the transition from the two-year normal school to the four-year college has in many cases been more or less of an evident necessity.

WHY THE CHANGE FROM NORMAL SCHOOL TO TEACHERS COLLEGE

For the purpose of determining reasons why the change has been so universally made, a questionnaire was sent to the president of each of the state-supported teacher-training institutions of the country. Individual expression of judgment on the problem was sought by the following questions:

> Will you give your thoughtful reaction to one of the following questions:
> (a) Do you favor the teachers-college plan as opposed to that of the normal school?
> Why?
> (b) Do you favor the normal school as opposed to the teachers-college plan?
> Why?

Some 135 questionnaires were sent to such administrative officers, and 115 replies were received. As is usual in the case of questionnaires, a few replies were so clearly outside the point as to indicate misunderstanding. Of the 115 replies received, 104 contained concerning the problem an expression of judgment classifiable as follows:

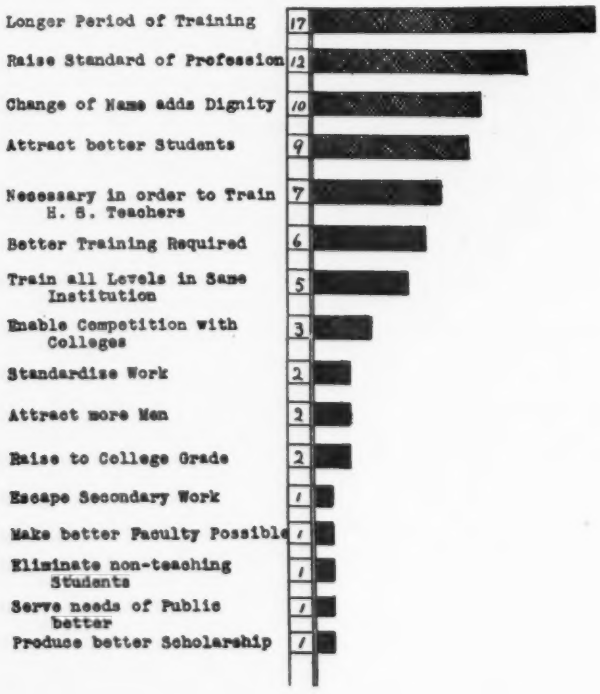
Number favoring teacher-college idea	82
Number opposed	11
Number doubtful	2
Number noncommittal as yet	4
Number thinking the two should run parallel	5

Clearly there is an overwhelming majority in favor of the change. An examination of the replies received reveals an unusual number of reasons advanced in favor of the change from the one type of institution to the other. These are here first presented as elemental material and later grouped for the purpose of more graphically indicating their significance:

Provides longer period of preparation (13)
Provides richer background (2)
Will professionalize teaching (2)
Will bring self-respect to the teacher (1)
Will remove handicap inherent in the name "school" (2)
The name "college" will add dignity (3)
The name "college" attracts young people (1)
Will bring better quality of student (4)
Will attract men and women of better personal quality (1)
The name "college" is a stimulus (2)
The name will add to the school (1)
Will eliminate non-teaching candidate (1)
Normal school is too largely devoted to method (1)
Will serve public schools better (1)
Better-trained teachers are needed (2)
All grades should be trained in the same institution (3)
Will compete better with colleges (1)
Will raise standards to those of liberal arts colleges (1)
Will take institutions out of secondary-school work (1)
Ambitious students will be educated for longer period (3)
Necessary to enter field of preparing high-school teachers (3)
General tendency (1)
Development according to conditions in state (1)
Will keep good teacher growing in knowledge, insight, and skill (1)
Will lead public to place higher valuation on preparation (1)
Will develop sentiment for better financial support (1)
Will serve high schools as well as elementary (3)
Will attract young men (1)
Is necessary for raising standards (1)
Will permit affiliation with junior colleges for first two years (2)
More than two years beyond high school needed to train teachers to do work required (1)
Will lead to better standards for entrance and scholarship (1)
Will lead to better type of student (2)
School officers are more interested in the work and will encourage student to enter teaching (1)
Will professionalize teaching, which because of low requirements is not thus far a profession (1)
Will draw more young people (2)
Will furnish greater opportunity for professional preparation (1)
Will promote interests of profession by attracting more and better young people and setting higher standards (1)
Will increase influence and power (2)
Is in line of progress (1)
Furnishes right spirit for teachers. Universities do not do this (2)
Will meet demand for school-teachers well trained (1)
Teachers colleges are better fitted to train school teacher than liberal arts colleges (1)
Growing demand exists for degree courses for elementary teachers (1)
Better "tone" in institution when degree work is done (1)
Better faculty is possible (1)

Too much routine preparation deadens ambition (1)
Will produce better scholarship (1)
Longer residence work needed (1)
Name not important. Teachers must be trained for all positions (1)
Will induce many to look beyond two-year course (1)
Elementary pupils deserve teacher with vision and training equal to that of high-school pupils (1)
Will offer standard courses adapted to teachers (1)
Inevitable (1)
"Normal" a misnomer (1)
Will compete with women's colleges (1)
Will permit greater election (1)
The two should run parallel (4)
Places teaching on a professional level, along with law and medicine (2)
Gives opportunity for choice of two or four-year courses (1)
Necessary for producing adequately trained elementary and secondary teachers (1)
All teachers should go four years beyond high school (1)
Will produce better standards (1)
Fair to the profession (1)
Helpful in making task distinctive (1)

DIAGRAM 1.—Distribution of reasons given for changing from two-year normal to four-year teachers college. Numbers indicate frequencies.


Longer Period of Training 17
Raise Standard of Profession 12
Change of Name adds Dignity 10
Attract better Students 9
Necessary in order to Train H. S. Teachers 7
Better Training Required 6
Train all Levels in Same Institution 5
Enable Competition with Colleges 3
Standardise Work 2
Attract more Men 2
Raise to College Grade 2
Escape Secondary Work 1
Make better Faculty Possible 1
Eliminate non-teaching Students 1
Serve needs of Public better 1
Produce better Scholarship 1

Sharper standards prevail in a professional school (1)
Necessary for raising standards (1)
Takes more than two years beyond high school to train teacher to do work required (1)
Better standards for entrance and scholarship (1)
School officers are more interested and encourage students to attend (1)
Teaching not now a profession, because requirements too low (1)
Furnishes opportunity for professional preparation (1)
Promotes interest of the profession by attracting more and better young people and setting better standards (1)
Increases the number of trained teachers (1)
Is in line with progress (1)

The general trend of these replies is shown in Diagram 1. The grouping therein does some violence to the exact form of some of them, but in general it is in accordance with their implications. Since a large number of them were advanced but once, such have been, for the most part, eliminated. The point of emphasis is at once apparent. It is obvious that there is significant stress upon the need for a longer period of training and an elevation of the standards of the profession. There is then involved a change in the name of the institution from that of "normal school" to "college," with the professional standing indicated by the descriptive term "teachers" thereto applied.

The arguments opposing the change are also presented. Although fewer in number, they serve, nevertheless, to indicate points of view which are significant:

1. Too large a percentage of only two-year courses is really required (4)
2. The need for training elementary teachers is only inadequately met even under the present system (3)
3. The teachers college devotes too much time to academic work (3)
4. Not ready for it yet (2)
5. It would be better to strengthen the present normal schools (1)
6. The students obtainable are best fitted for normal-school type of work (1)
7. Salaries paid teachers do not warrant increased time in preparation (1)

The attitude of the heads of some institutions may best be shown through quotations from their replies. The statements opposing the change are presented first, since they point out some of the obvious difficulties involved:

1. "For us the type of school which serves our people best is the normal-school plan, with high-school work for those who need it and two years above the high school to train teachers for graded positions and consolidated schools."
2. "I am not at all in sympathy with the idea of converting normal schools into liberal arts colleges for the purpose of attracting students and obtaining college credit."

3. "The two-year normal-school program must remain the prevailing type for a very considerable period. Ambition should not outrun sound judgment in an effort to elevate the standard of professional preparation."

4. "The danger in the change of name is that the newly named institution will mimic the traditional college with standards excessively academic, producing teachers of the college type, out of sympathy with elementary work."

5. "I doubt its wisdom, because practically all four-year graduates go into high-school teaching."

6. "For a year or more I was in the State Teachers College at ————. My recollection is that 75 per cent of the students were in the junior college. . . . I would expect at least 90 per cent of the students in the new teachers colleges to be in the first two years of the four-year course, and but 10 per cent to be in the second two years. . . . I think the present solution of the problem is to strengthen the two-year normal school. According to statistics, we are hardly scratching the surface to supply normal-trained teachers for all of our positions. Why make such a furor about a four-year training when we are unable to supply a two-year training?"

The following quotations present the views of some of those favoring the change. They are given without comment.

1. "This institution is older than the state university, older than half the colleges. It has from the start prepared high-school teachers and principals and superintendents. With the gradual elevation of high-school standards, it became evident our graduates would be excluded from all high schools, even village high schools, unless we should lengthen our courses and give a degree.

"We wish to have some men in this institution. If we confine ourselves to the preparation of elementary teachers, the men will disappear, as they have disappeared from the state normal schools in New England and New York. We believe that men and women—that is, elementary teachers and their principals and superintendents—should be taught in the same institutions, where the same ideals, standards, and methods prevail. We believe that it promotes the unity of our school system to have all teachers receive a part of their training, at least, under the same roof.

"The state normal schools are the state's chief agent for the training of teachers and should be given the entire job."

2. "Decisions of the Supreme Court in Illinois, Michigan, and New York declare that common schools mean all elementary and high schools maintained by taxation. The functions of the Illinois training institutions set forth in their establishment are to prepare teachers for the common schools of the state. It is clear, therefore, that both the term 'common schools' and the term 'function' are in a progressive state of evolution. All our institutions are now training large numbers of elementary teachers and some high-school teachers. In a few places public education in Illinois includes the junior college; and, hence, in order to satisfy the enlarged function, we shall even have to train some teachers for junior colleges. We cannot stop an evolutionary process. Elasticity works for progress more than does compression."

3. "There is an active demand for professionally trained secondary teachers in our territory—far beyond what we can supply. The teachers college is better fitted to train high-school teachers than the arts college. There is a growing demand for a degree course for elementary teachers. The tone and the quality

of the work done in the training of elementary teachers are better where a degree course is offered. A stronger faculty can be attracted and held if degree work is offered. The situation is comparable to the effect of a graduate school upon undergraduate work in a university."

4. "I believe that both these plans should be followed in each institution, running parallel as far as possible for the first two years, from which course (two years) the great majority of students would graduate and enter the profession, but returning from time to time to complete the normal-college course."

5. "The normal schools of Pennsylvania all have a two-year course. They grant no degrees. We are anxious to have the normal schools converted into teachers colleges, and yet I appreciate that there is a greater demand for teachers for elementary schools than the normal schools can supply. Most of us would like to have a two-year course for teachers of the elementary grades and a four-year course, with the degree B.S. or Ph.B., for those who want to prepare for high-school work. Our idea is that the students themselves should decide as to whether they would like to have a two-year course or a four-year course. We have so many colleges in Pennsylvania with pedagogical departments that I think they are able to prepare all the teachers for high schools that we need. Consequently it might be best for the fourteen normal schools of our state to keep on preparing teachers for the elementary grades."

6. "I hold on to the idea that the normal school or teachers college, whichever it may be, is in reality an integral part of the state's public-school system, as it is from these institutions that the state must hope to draw the major portion of her trained teachers. If the state's certification scheme calls for preparation not to exceed two years beyond graduation from a standard high school, then there is no need for such a state's having teacher-training institutions offering more than two years. If the state's certification scheme calls for four years of training beyond a standard high school, then there is need in said state for a standard teachers college. In North Carolina, according to the state salary schedule, there is equal pay for equal training for all teachers, from the primary grades through the high school. The highest teaching certificate—that is, Class A—is issued on the completion of a standard four-year college course with a definite amount of professional training. In other words, to get the highest certificate in North Carolina, one must be a graduate of a standard teachers college or do work equivalent thereto."

7. "The aim, it seems to me, should be that of the normal school—namely, to prepare teachers to teach. The degree should be based primarily on a normal course rather than upon what most people mean by a college course. The danger in the change of name is that the newly named institution will mimic the traditional college, with standards excessively academic, producing teachers of the college type, out of sympathy with elementary work."

8. "It takes more than two years after high school to train teachers to do the work we are asking them to do. On the other hand, I do not believe that a teachers college has any reason for existence apart from the one purpose of preparing for the teaching service. The teachers college should be a professional school and not a college of liberal arts primarily."

9. "The normal schools and teachers colleges exist for the sake of the teaching profession. I believe that the normal schools need to be converted, so far as they can be, into teachers colleges for the sake of giving teacher-training schools better standing and for the sake of attracting more capable young people to the institutions. To do this, teachers colleges will have to live up to the best traditions of

colleges. It is not enough to have a change in name. However, the change in name is desirable, because for many institutions it will make possible higher standards."

10. "The name 'teachers college' has added greatly to the standing of this school. It is growing in influence and power much more rapidly since the change from normal school to teachers college. We are now getting many of those who before went to the state university. Our school is now a member of the North Central Association, so its graduates are privileged to teach anywhere."

On the whole, it will be noted that the preponderance of sentiment is in favor of the change. A number of heads of these institutions, however, oppose it for one reason or another.

In a majority of the states the change has already been legalized, although it may not yet be actively in operation. In some states, such as Massachusetts, only a part of the normal schools have been lifted to the four-year level; in others, like New York, a three-year curriculum is already in operation, looking forward to the addition of a fourth, when the term "teachers college" will doubtless be applied. Some other states, such as Wisconsin, are actively agitating the plan and anticipating its accomplishment within a relatively short time. It is altogether likely, however, that in a few of the states limited resources and a relatively small demand for highly trained teachers will for years to come compel a retention of the two-year normal school.

THE FUNDAMENTAL FACTORS INVOLVED

We may turn next to a consideration of the significance of some of the changes involved. At the outset, the normal school, with its two-year curriculum, was established and has consistently striven primarily to fit teachers for the elementary grades. To this end its curriculum has been very largely fixed, with a limited number of electives. Care has been taken to see that a thorough review shall be had of the fundamental subjects, and that likewise instruction shall be given in the methodology of each. It has been these review courses, usually catalogued under the caption of "methods," which have been the principal point of attack of the college upon the type of work done in the normal school. The contention has been made that much of the work is not only below college level, but even below that of the high school. Along with these purely professional courses, however, there have been many courses, similar to those in an academic college, dealing with the broadly cultural side of the teacher's development. The normal school has had a specific function, for the accomplishment of which a well-defined curriculum has come into existence. Whether these curricula were the best possible is not the point at issue. The significant fact lies in their pointedness and specificness.

The organization of a teachers college, on the other hand, has of necessity been somewhat different. Such an institution has customarily organized the work of the first two years largely so as to meet the established legal requirements for a professional certificate. On the basis of the work prescribed for these first two years there has then been constructed a curriculum which should lead on to the baccalaureate degree. It is obvious to one who examines the curriculum of such an institution, and more especially to one who has had internal teaching contact, that the professional preparation afforded to students on a two-year basis in a teachers college is less specific than has been that provided by the normal school. This fact is readily perceived through a comparison, which may easily be made, of the percentage of electives and the amount of time spent in actual observation and practice teaching in the two types of institutions.

For the purpose of making such a comparison, the curricula of a number of institutions have been examined and calculations made concerning the percentage of the total amount of time given to observation and practice teaching and the percentage of elective hours in the curriculum. Although the number of typical normal schools (by name at least) now in existence is limited, there are enough to furnish good cases. In the typical normal school, with a two-year curriculum, it is unusual to find any significant number of electives permitted. The entire course of study is prescribed. Election is made possible only with respect to entire curricula, and these are much alike. A large amount of time and effort is devoted to observation and practice teaching, varying from 12 to 35 per cent. In the teachers colleges, on the other hand, in the first two years of work, the percentage of electives varies from 0 to 50 per cent, and the amount of time devoted to observation and practice teaching from 5 to 20 per cent. While dealing with this phase of the problem, we may also note that throughout their four-year curricula the teachers colleges permit a relatively wide range of electives, varying from 40 to 60 per cent of all courses, and for the professional and baccalaureate degrees require only from 4 to 10 per cent of observation and practice teaching. It is apparent, then, that the normal school, with its two-year curriculum, has been specifically concerned with the preparation of the teacher for a particular type of work, and to this end has set up a curriculum designed to meet the immediate professional needs of the teacher in the schoolroom. The two-year certificate course of the teachers college, on the other hand, offers a wider range of electives and a lesser amount of time devoted to practice teaching, from which the inference may be drawn that the preparation is less specifically defined and is concerned with

the establishment of a more generalized basis for professional development.

These facts raise a question which is pertinent to the whole problem of teacher training and is typified by the administration of the two types of curricula as above described. The question may be stated as follows: Are the most desirable results to be obtained through specific preparation, such as for a long time characterized the two-year curricula of our normal schools, or are they best got by broader and more generous contacts dealing with general principles and a wider range of materials? In short, shall we consider an effective preparation of elementary-school teachers as entailing necessarily an extensive review of the fundamental subjects and the methodology of each, or shall we proceed upon the assumption that such reviews, except to a limited extent, are not essential, believing that with certain general principles in mind and a richer background of material the young teacher can work out his own problems and methodology? This would appear to be an essentially important problem. There are, to be sure, many factors in the case, and it is not the purpose of this paper to discuss them. In view of the fact, however, that the average total term of professional service of the elementary-school teacher is in the neighborhood of five years, the advisability of leaving the slow development of effective method and teaching technique largely to experience would seem to be open to question. Indeed, the testimony of teachers themselves[1] concerning their most pressing needs indicates the fact that more attention needs to be given to the subject-matter directly useful in the teaching process.

This point may be pressed even further. The four-year plan of organization has inevitably been largely influenced by prevailing college and university practice. In academic colleges the work of the first two years has been largely prescribed, while that of the last two has permitted wide election. A certain amount of elective work, however, has been permitted in the first two years, and this plan has, no doubt, influenced the practice of the teachers colleges. Even so there is not as sharp a contrast with normal schools as there seems at first to be, for the normal schools themselves permit a certain degree of election within curricula. The teachers colleges quite universally adopt the plan of constants with variables, an organization which guarantees a relatively wide range of contacts and insures for most teachers a generous quantity of professional subjects. It is quite likely that could assurance be had that students coming up out of the high school have acquired a mastery over the fundamental processes, the procedures of the less specific plan would be thoroughly justifiable.

[1] For example: *New York Survey*, "The Teaching Personnel," p. 59.

Experience, however, with such students reveals the fact that the assumption cannot safely be made. If, again, there were assurance of the fact that teachers would keep growing during their professional service and could have adequate supervision from its beginning, then also the less specific organization would be justifiable. There is no safe basis, however, for these assumptions. If it turns out that the teachers college develops for us less effective elementary-school teachers, the change from the normal school will indeed have proved unfortunate. Doubtless there may be reliance to a certain extent at least upon the development of a technique for a wider and better specific supervision to compensate in a measure for the less specific training administered.

SOME ATTENDANT PROBLEMS

Several questions are involved in the wide educational development now under discussion. One of these certainly is: What is to be the relation of the teachers college to other educational institutions?

It is obviously the purpose of the teachers colleges ultimately to take over quite completely the training of practically all teachers for both the elementary school and the high school. This goal they openly set up and strive for. They are also endeavoring to train principals and superintendents. It is their belief that the training for all levels of the school system should be given by one professional institution—the teachers college. They contend that bringing together in this fashion all the various departments which function in the training of teachers and educators at various levels will add distinctly to the spirit of the institution. This undoubtedly is true. There is little doubt that, other things being equal, the results obtainable in a distinctly professional atmosphere are superior to those obtainable under other conditions.

Probably there is no reasonable doubt concerning the ability of teachers colleges to train high-school teachers. Their efficiency in developing effective administrators and supervisors is, with their present faculty development, in some cases open to serious question. To the departments of education in universities, both state and private, should probably be left altogether the task of training effective research workers, supervisors, and administrators, primarily because such preparation should not be below the graduate level. A few state-supported teachers colleges at the present time are adding graduate departments and encouraging students to enter them. It is doubtful, however, if this practice can become universal. Departments of education in the universities are quite willing to admit that, with better training-school facilities, preparation for teaching on the lower levels can be better done in the teachers colleges and the normal schools.

The training upon higher levels, however, and the development of research workers doubtless, unless there is to be duplication of state-supported training facilities, should be made the peculiar function of the university departments of education.

This leads to another question: Are the faculties and facilities of teachers colleges generally adequate to maintain a collegiate grade of work? Many investigations have been made with reference to the relative preparation of normal-school and academic-college faculties. Comparisons have been based upon: first, the extent of learning as evidenced by the possession of higher degrees; second, the extent of thoughtful productiveness, as shown by books and original studies produced; and—as an evidence of institutional ability to provide for the high grades of teaching—third, the teaching load. It has been found that a few of the normal-school faculties, when judged by these criteria, are as well trained and as capable apparently of carrying on college work as are those of some of the academic colleges. In the main, however, the faculties of the recently developed teachers colleges do not present so high a level of preparation as is to be found in the better colleges and the universities. This is particularly true in the institutions of smaller type and in the poorer states.

Perhaps the relationships may be shown numerically. If a weighting be given to the academic level of faculty training, an average may be struck which may typify the institution. Perhaps, to this end, we might ascribe the value of *one* to the instructor with a baccalaureate degree; a value of *two* to one with a master's degree; and a value of *one* for each additional year of graduate work. Leaving out of consideration the nonacademic departments, it will be found that the small teachers colleges (and, indeed, some of the larger ones) will yield an average of only from 1.5 to 2. The colleges and universities, on the other hand, will yield an average of from 2.5 to 3.

These facts are very suggestive. They seem to indicate that the teachers college, if it is to maintain the established collegiate level with respect to its instructors, must require of them more study than they are now doing. No doubt the same thing is true of the professional and scholarly productiveness evidenced in books and articles published. Again, the teaching load in the smaller and more recently developed teachers colleges is still much too heavy to permit the faculties to make adequate preparation for genuinely collegiate instruction. A hopeful outcome of the present movement, however, is the fact that the newly developed teachers colleges are affiliating with the college and university associations and attempting to put into operation the faculty standards these require. This will mean eventually a better trained and more creative faculty, a more reasonable teaching load, a

stricter adherence to standards, and an elimination of high-school work from the curricula. It is, in fact, unless the teacher-training aim be sacrificed thereby, one of the most commendable and noteworthy results of the whole movement.

One notes also that some of the best recent educational literature has been produced in the teachers colleges and not a negligible amount in the normal schools. Thus it is reasonable to suppose that, with a reduction of the teaching load and with the encouragement which an institution of collegiate rank should give to its faculty, a considerable increase in productivity may be looked for from these professional schools. The same anticipation of betterment seems reasonable also with respect to the material school equipment.

This leads to a further point, which needs the most careful consideration. This is the matter of finance. When the teachers colleges are organized on a high level, it is very clear that, if a superior faculty is to be provided and a reduced teaching load is to be put into effect, the total operating expenses will be considerably increased. Furthermore, it is to be borne in mind in this connection that the cost of the last two years of collegiate work is comparatively high, owing to necessary provision for specialization and for consequent smaller classes. It becomes apparent, therefore, that the addition of two years to the curriculum will in all likelihood considerably more than double the expenses for instruction, particularly if a range of subjects commensurate with collegiate standards be provided. The question immediately presents itself, and is already appearing as most significant, as to how far legislators can be persuaded to provide for adequate development.

The significance of the problem is at once apparent when one contemplates the fact that in many states from five to ten state-supported teacher-training institutions are already established. If adequate financial support be not forthcoming, at once it becomes clear that the ability of state teachers colleges to provide instruction on a truly collegiate level is seriously curtailed. This being the case, we should be forced to witness state institutions with degree-granting powers giving instruction on a level far below that commensurate with collegiate standards. Already, indeed, this is taking place. What effect it may have, if continued, on the standards generally can only be surmised. It is to be hoped that the earnest efforts of the college and university associations to hold high the standards of their membership may be effective in meeting the situation.

There is another side of the question which, in conclusion, deserves to be noted. A tremendous increase in the number of young men and women seeking entrance into colleges and universities is a note-

worthy fact characteristic of the present educational movement. Everywhere large numbers are now being turned away because of inadequate facilities to care for them. The teachers colleges will provide a wider opportunity for those students who might otherwise be prohibited from finding entrance into any higher institution. The desire to compete with academic colleges (not freely admitted, however) has undoubtedly been one of the strongest incentives toward the change of the normal schools into teachers colleges. By thus increasing the number of state-supported institutions of collegiate rank there is effected a vast increase in the opportunities afforded young people for gaining a collegiate education. Whether or not this shall lead to a significant increase in those entering the profession of teaching remains to be determined. In some states a close articulation has for years been established between the normal schools and the state universities, making easy the passage of students from the one to the other. This may perhaps be developed into an affiliation between teachers colleges and state universities. It is possible, too, that an agreement may be reached whereby a division of responsibility will be entered upon, so that each of the institutions will contribute some special form of training needed by the teachers of the state. This has already been developing, particularly in New York and Wisconsin, and to a certain extent in Massachusetts. The fact needs to be recognized, however, that a far more generous financial support needs to be given before teachers colleges can develop upon a level which their name and purpose would require, and thus meet the expectations of entrants into them.

SUMMARY

A summary of the points in this paper may be made as follows:

1. There has been from the outset in teacher-training institutions a conflict between the academic and professional subjects.

2. There is a wide range of reasons advanced for changing the normal schools to teachers colleges. A large majority of teacher-training institutional heads favor it.

3. The present marked trend in the transformation is likely, according to the evidence in hand, to be attended by:

   (a) A lesser amount of time devoted to observation and practice teaching;

   (b) The introduction of a much wider range of electives, both in subjects and curricula.

4. A consequent accentuation of the academic subjects seems probable.

5. There is thus elevated into prominence the question as to whether or not in preparing teachers for elementary grades it be better to provide specific reviews and methodology or to rely upon a body of general principles and the background of a richer content for the development of effective methods and teaching technique.

6. A paramount question is as to whether or not state legislatures may be brought to provide financial support for the development of the teachers colleges on an effective level.

7. The teachers college, if adequately financed, will doubtless serve:

(a) To attract a larger number of men and women than the normal schools have been able to do;

(b) To provide better academic instruction;

(c) To increase very greatly the opportunities for collegiate training.

8. A possible danger (already very apparent) is in the fact that in the absence of adequate financial support an inferior type of work may pass for a genuine collegiate level of instruction, and that the degrees granted will thus come to have but little academic significance.

A STUDY OF THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH IN KENTUCKY HIGH SCHOOLS

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It is an old and true saying that no stream is higher than its source. One may apply this principle to the sphere of education by saying that no school is likely to function in preparing boys and girls for a large social service which is beyond the horizon of the training and outlook of its teachers. "As is the teacher, so is the school," is a common expression of this great truth.

The training of a teacher should, of course, be many-sided; for the preparation of youth for life can be profitably directed only by a larger conception than obtained formerly of what such service involves. No longer does the idea hold sway in educational thought that scholarship or a knowledge of facts alone is the only essential of a well-trained teacher of the young. We believe now that the teacher must also know man and his social relationships, that he must know the psychology of the mind at work, and that he must be acquainted with the scholarship of instructional activities and with the great educational movements of the time. To this end teachers colleges have come into existence, and a new era in the training of teachers of our youth has recently dawned.

One hears on every hand, especially among college instructors, much criticism of the instruction which is being given boys and girls in the high schools. I must confess that I have added my mite to the chorus of voices raised in this censure, largely because of the poor showing made by the hundreds of high-school graduates who, now for a number of years, have been members of my college freshman classes in English.

With a desire to study the causes of the inadequacies apparent in these young people, I recently took occasion to investigate the training and scholastic standing of the teachers of English in the high schools of Kentucky, the state from which nearly all of them came. In January, 1925, a carefully prepared letter of inquiry was sent, under the auspices of the English Club in the Teachers College, to the 497 high schools of the state. Replies were received from 166 schools. The high schools from which the answers came represent all types, from the three large city schools in the largest city in the state to the very

small rural high schools with only two or three teachers each. Few of the latter type, however, responded and are included in the study. A summary of the facts revealed by the replies is given in this article.

In order to appreciate the rather poor condition which the replies to the inquiry show, one must note three significant factors that enter into the situation. In the first place, the Kentucky system of public high schools is a growth of only fourteen or fifteen years. When the law of 1909 requiring at least one high school in each county was passed, there were probably a dozen four-year high schools in the state; now there are about five hundred. Furthermore, the two older normal schools in the state became teachers colleges only three years ago, and have to date graduated just three classes, two at Bowling Green and one at Richmond—a history which shows that they could have played until now only a small part in the preparation of teachers for high schools. The rapid development of the high schools, which now require a force of about 1,800 teachers, has made it practically impossible for the liberal arts colleges to turn out enough graduates prepared to teach to supply the yearly demand for about four hundred new teachers. A third factor is also operative here. Many of the high schools of the state are small-town and rural schools, which are hardly able to pay the salaries demanded by college-trained teachers, and thus have been forced to accept students of less ability. In view of these facts, one is not surprised at the relatively poor scholastic attainment of a considerable proportion of the teachers of English in the Kentucky high schools.

HIGH-SCHOOL TRAINING

Of the 166 teachers of English about whom information was received in this study, nineteen had not completed a four-year course in a high school. Four of these had done only two years of high-school work; seven had done three; and four had done three and one-half. Eighteen of them, however, had completed their secondary work in normal schools or in the preparatory departments of colleges. It is interesting to note that one teacher whose total scholastic achievement is one year's work in a high school is a full-fledged instructor of youth in a B-class high school. The 166 teachers discussed in this study, it should be stated, are all of them heads of departments or the only teachers of English in their schools. Assistant teachers of English, of whom there were forty-four reported, are discussed separately in a paragraph at the close of the article.

COLLEGE TRAINING AND DEGREES

In view of the very recent development of the high-school system of Kentucky, the situation shown by the data given in the next paragraph

is not unsatisfactory. Ideally every high-school teacher should, of course, be a college graduate; but this condition can hardly be reached for some time to come in Southern high schools.

One hundred and one teachers among the one hundred and sixty-six, or 61 per cent, hold degrees. Of these, three hold the M.A.; eighty-two, the B.A.; twelve, the B.S.; two, the B.L.; one, the B.O.; one, the Ph.B.; one, the Ped.B.; and four, the A.A. Sixty-five hold no degree at all. Just what kind of a degree the A.A. is, I have been unable to learn, except that it seems to be granted for varying amounts of work—in one instance for one year, in two cases for two years, and in the fourth case for three years.

Seventy-four teachers in the group which had studied in college reported fewer than four years of college work. Of this number, seventeen, however, had secured degrees, probably either having carried more than the normal load at some place along the way or having received degrees from colleges in which the organization and requirements did not conform to modern standards. There were formerly several colleges of this kind in Kentucky. Eleven teachers had done three and one-half years of college work; seventeen, three years; forty-one, two years or thereabouts; and five, one year. Nine teachers of the one hundred and sixty-six had done no college work at all. That these are allowed to teach in high schools is, of course, a violation of reasonable standards; but during the present period of educational development in Kentucky, many small and weak high schools are allowed to exist in the hope that they may grow into larger and stronger ones, and because of limitations in finances these have to be content with a poor grade of teachers.

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

As was remarked at the beginning of this paper, efficient training for the high office of instructing youth now involves much more than was formerly considered necessary. A mere knowledge of the subject-matter facts to be imparted is now thought to be only the "first mile" on the road to efficient preparation. We now believe that the "doctrine of the second mile" is the principle which shows the way to the training necessary for the greatest service. It is now scholarship *plus*, or "that other thing," as the president of a certain teachers college often calls it, that defines the equipment of the ideal teacher.

Thus specific professional training is fast becoming an essential part of a teacher's development. The fight of the liberal arts college—waged in almost every state in the Union—to remain the sole agency for preparing teachers for the secondary schools has been a

losing one for a number of years. Already over a hundred, out of approximately one hundred and ninety, state normal schools in the United States have become teachers colleges and are now engaged, among other duties, in sending into secondary schools their product with the "scholarship plus" of present-day educational ideals. Even before the teachers colleges began to function, so strong was the demand for the professionally trained instructor that many graduates of the two-year courses in normal schools were admitted to high schools, and in most instances probably did as successful work as the college graduate with more subject-matter but without professional training.

Seventy-six of the one hundred and sixty-six teachers reported in this study have done some work in normal schools or teachers colleges. Thirty-one of them hold life certificates from such a professional school—a degree of advancement which is the equivalent in scholastic standing of junior-college graduation. The sad fact here, however, is that a great portion of these thirty-one did not go on in their scholastic preparation and achieve the bachelor's degree. Only nine of them did this, while seventeen seemed altogether content with their two-years' scholastic training. Five of them, however, accomplished one more year's work and now have three years of college work to their credit. The varying amounts of professional work done by the seventy-six of this group are shown in the composite table which appears with this article.

MAJOR AND MINOR SUBJECTS IN SCHOLASTIC TRAINING

It is often unfortunately true that teachers in secondary schools did not take special training while in college to teach the particular subjects in which they are now instructing boys and girls. Probably many a college senior buds forth each year, in the September following his graduation, as a teacher of English, for instance, only because a vacancy in that subject happened to appear when he began to look for something to do, and because, very possibly, either his college or some member of its faculty had a particularly strong influence in the community where the vacancy occurred. I myself, indeed, began teaching high-school Latin the year following graduation from college, not because of special preparation in that subject, but because a vacancy in Latin was the first that presented itself.

Nowadays most colleges allow—in fact, require—a student to choose a subject upon which to place the major emphasis in his study. It is expected, then, that candidates to teach English in high schools should major in that subject in their college courses and thus be specifically trained to give successful instruction in that line of work. And yet

COMPOSITE TEACHER-TRAINING RECORD

Showing the Training of 166 High-School Teachers of English in Kentucky

		DEGREE OF ADVANCEMENT ARRIVED AT																														
		1 Year	2 Years	3 Years	3½ Years	4 or More Years	3 Terms	2 Terms	1 Term	15 Weeks	12 Weeks, Summer	9 Weeks, Summer	6 Weeks, Summer	Some	None	Life	Intermediate	Elementary	B. A.	B. S.	B. L.	B. O.	Ph. B.	Ped. B.	A. A.	M. A.	No Degree	English–Education	English–History	English–Mod. Lang.	English–Latin	English–Mathematics	Education–Science	English–Home Ec.
PREPARATION FOR TEACHING	High-School Work	4*	4*	7*	4*	147																											
	Time Spent in Normal School or Teachers College	6	33	4	2	3	4	3	3	1	1	2	10	4	90																		
	Normal-School Certificates Held															31	2	3															
	Time Spent in College	5	41	17	11	80																											
	Degrees Held																		82	12	2	1	1	1	4	3	65						
	Principal Major-Minor Combinations																											25	18	18	13	10	5	3

*Secondary-school work completed in normal schools or preparatory departments of colleges.

when one investigates a group of high-school teachers regarding their scholastic preparation for the instruction they are actually giving, he finds many rather wide and incongruous variations from this logically designed principle.

Of the one hundred and sixty-six teachers of English discussed in this article, only seventy-nine majored in English in their college or other preparatory work. Thirty others, however, made the subject a minor. There are left fifty-seven who in their preparation made English neither their major nor minor subject. Some of the combinations of subjects followed by these English teachers during what should have been their preparation to teach were as far as possible from pertinency to the subject. One teacher had as his major-minor combination law and education. Perhaps he is a budding young lawyer who is teaching to keep the wolf from the door during his "starvation period." Another had geology and chemistry, and still another chemistry and botany. Many other such combinations, equally foreign for teachers of English, might be cited, but these are enough to illustrate the situation. The most frequent combinations were: English-education, twenty-five times; English-history, eighteen; English-modern languages, eighteen; English-Latin, thirteen; and English-mathematics, ten.

ASSISTANT TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

The foregoing facts have had to do only with heads of departments of English or with those who are the only teachers of that subject in the school. Just a word remains now to be said about forty-four assistant teachers of English regarding whom information was gained in this study. All these assistants have had a standard four-year course in a high school and varying amounts of college work—two, one year; six, two years; two, three years; one, three and one-half years; thirty-two, four years. This showing, which on the whole is much better than that of the one hundred and sixty-six principal teachers studied above, is probably due to the fact that the schools which have assistant teachers of English are the larger and better schools, which usually demand college graduation of their teachers. Twenty-six of the forty-four assistants are in the three large high schools of Louisville. Among the forty-four, thirty-four hold B.A. degrees and one an M.A.

TRANSLATION FOR LITERARY APPRECIATION

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During the summer quarter of 1924 the students of the Peabody College course, Latin 12, were given certain exercises in translating Catullus, intended to produce literary appreciation. The processes were carried out at three levels, or stages, as follows:

1. The usual classroom exercises were mainly analytical, to get the meaning through the fundamental matters of vocabulary, syntax, and the details of metrical form.

2. The students were then required to write a careful translation, aiming not merely at accuracy, but also at discrimination in choice of words and at elegance in phrasing. Exercises in this stage were designed to result in poetic prose.

3. Finally, the students selected some well-known English form of poetry and turned a poem of Catullus into verse. It was pointed out that a desirable English form would correspond quite nearly to the Latin form, although to attain this ideal completely is well-nigh impossible. It is well known that English seems not natural or at home with trochaic and dactylic rhythm, but rather with iambic rhythm. Stanza, rime, and stichic arrangement also are different in the two languages. These matters were discussed with the students to show that in Latin poetry we must look to the broad and fundamental resemblances to English and must expect differences in exactness of thought and in poetic form, just as in syntax we find differences of idiom—for example, the equivalent in English for the Latin ablative absolute requires a very different idiom.

Below are given the results of these exercises, illustrated by a few papers from the class on the third and eighty-second poems of Catullus. First is given the Latin poem and then, omitting the intermediate analytical details and the careful rendering into prose, the verse translation. Several versions of the same poem are presented to show how varied are the possibilities and how really creative the translation may be. It may, for instance, show condensation below the measure of the original or elaboration quite above the limits of space and number of words thought necessary or desirable by the Latin author.

I

CATULLI CARMEN LXXXII

The first exercise deals with Catullus' short poem of four lines (No. 82), the Latin form of which is as follows:

Qvinti, si tibi vis oculos debere Catullum
Aut aliud siquid carius est oculis,
Eripere ei noli, multo quod carius illi
Est oculis seu quid carius est oculis.

1. The poem is light in concept, but the thought is gracefully embroidered with words and sounds. The manner of putting on the embroidery is the thing; the process is that of linking and doubling back the simplest of phrases, ringing the changes on two words, *oculi* (eyes) and *carius* (dearer), with slight implications.

2. Tennyson liked such verbal felicities. His son quotes a comment of his on Browning which is applicable here (Hallam Tennyson, *Alfred, Lord Tennyson*, 1883, Vol. II, p. 285):

"Browning seldom attempts the marriage of sense with sound, although he shows a spontaneous felicity in the adaptation of words to ideas and feelings. I wish I had written his two lines:

The little more and how much it is,
The little less and what worlds away.

He has plenty of music in him, but he cannot get it out."

That Tennyson was fond of Catullus and appreciated just these qualities is shown by his experiments in Catullan meters and by his poem "Sirmione."

How well the students dealt with this principle will be illustrated by the versions which follow:

1. Quintius, if there is a wish to you
That eyes of mine to you be due,
Or whatsoever else may be
More dear than eyes of mine to me,
Wish not to snatch away from me
That which is dearer far to me
Than eyes or aught can ever be. ROBERT H. BROCK.

2. Quintius, if you want me to owe you my eyes,
Or that dearer than eyes to me,
Deprive me not of that dearer than eyes,
If aught dearer than eyes can be. JULIA PULLIAM.

3. Quintius, if you wish Catullus to
Owe you his eyes,
Or anything that is dearer than
Eyes for a prize,
Do not take from him the prize
That is dearer than eyes,
For something dearer than eyes
Is indeed a great prize. EDITH N. ROARK.

II

CATULLI CARMEN III

The second exercise was on a poem of more substance, and called for more solidity but less mere gracefulness of treatment. The eighteen lines of poem No. 3 follow:

Lvgete, o Veneres Cupidinesque,
Et quantumst Hominum venustiorum.
Passer mortuus est meae puellae,
Passer, deliciae meae puellae,
Quem plus illa oculis suis amabat:
Nam mellitus erat suamque norat
Ipsam tam bene puella matrem;
Nec sese a gremio illius movebat,
Sed circumsiliens modo huc modo illuc
Ad solam dominam usque pipiabat.
Qui nunc it per iter tenebricosum
Illuc, unde negant redire quemquam.
At vobis male sit, malae tenebrae
Orci, quae omnia bella devoratis;
Tam bellum mihi passerem abstulistis.
Vae factum male! vae miselle passer!
Tua nunc opera meae puellae
Flendo turgiduli rubent ocelli.

The students' verse translations are given below:

1. O, mourn, ye graces and ye loves
And all ye men possessed of charm!
The sparrow of my love is dead,
The sparrow, darling of her heart,
Whom she held dearer than her eyes;
For he was honey-sweet and knew
His own as she her mother knew.
Nor from her lap would he e'er move,
But, hopping here and hopping there,
Beguiled his mistress with a song.
Through shadowed way he now has gone,
From which men say there's no return.
Be ye accursed, O evil shades,

Who all things beauteous do devour;
For ye have robbed me of my pet.
O evil deed! Alas, poor bird!
Because of you my dear one's eyes
Are swollen red with weeping much. LUCY PIERCE.

2. Ye graces and ye lovers, mourn,
And all you men of graces born.
My lady's little bird is dead,
The sparrow my dear lady fed,
This pet she loved more than her eyes,
For he was honey-sweet and wise.
As she her mother fondly knew,
So he his mistress, kind and true;
From her embrace he would not move,
Unfailing love to her he'd prove;
For, circling round, now there, now here,
Chirped constant notes meant for her ear.
Now skims he through the shady way,
Whence none return to light of day.
My curse upon you, shades of night,
That swallow pretty things from sight.
You've taken my pretty bird from me;
Ah, wicked deed! Poor birdie! See,
My lady's darling eyes for you
With grief are red and swollen, too. JANIE BUSH.

3. O mourn, ye loves and graces all,
And men possessed of any grace!
The sparrow of my love is dead,
The sparrow dear, my darling's pet,
Whom she loved more than her own eyes;
For he was honey-sweet and knew
His own as she her mother knew;
Nor did he ever leave her lap,
But, hopping round, now here, now there,
He always chirped to her alone.
He now goes through that gloomy way,
To that place whence no one returns.
But plague upon you, dismal shades
Of Orcus, which all beauty waste;
My pretty sparrow you have seized.
O woeful deed! Poor little bird!
Through fault of yours my love's dear eyes
Are red with weeping, swoll'n with tears.
JULIA PULLIAM.

4. O, weep, ye gods above
And all ye men of grace!
The bird no more shall move
In her accustomed place.

This pet to Lesbia true
  Was dearer than her soul,
The bird her mistress knew
  As none had ever told.

And in her bosom soft
  This little bird reclined,
Nor held its head aloft,
  But to its mistress chimed.

To her alone it sang
  As to and fro it moved,
Nor caused her heart a pang,
  No matter where it roved.

Now goes it down the road
  That leads to night and gloom;
O, cursed be the god
  That brought this bird its doom!

Ye shades that prey alike
  Upon the fair and proud,
Ye took from me my sprite,
  And me in grief did shroud.

Now, sparrow, you have done
  A loathsome deed to me;
You make my darling mourn
  And weep and sigh for thee. MRS. W. T. PEARSON.

FINAL DISCUSSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

1. After these poems had been submitted in polished verse form, the success or approach to success of the student in the art of translation was discussed. This art was presented not as an end in itself, but specifically as a basis for literary appreciation.

2. Catullus was made the text, and by constant comparison of the Latin and the English, by passing from Latin to English and back again, the attempt was made to show that by such a method of translating Catullus one was gaining not merely an introduction to Latin poetry, but at the same time and in addition a true introduction to poetry in general.

3. Two very different versions may be equal in merit. The choice of form—including meter, stanza, blank verse, rime, and the like—determines to some degree the quality of the result or the adequacy of the translation. But happy phrasing and a strong medium of imagination are just as telling.

4. The results must be left to speak for themselves, but the eagerness and the enthusiasm of the students working at these tasks of verse appreciation made a very happy contrast to some of the drudgery which had necessarily to precede. These students at the end not only knew their Catullus, but they knew how to attack Horace and how to apply their knowledge to English lyrics as well.

5. A similar method, but with less detail and more directness and simplicity, can be used with high-school pupils very effectively to enhance their appreciation of Vergil and Ovid.

THE VALUE OF STANDARDS IN GRADING EXAMINATION PAPERS

L. A. SHARP

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Two phases of the reliability of teachers' ability to grade examination papers are examined in this study: first, the reliability of teachers' estimates of the difficulty of examination questions compared with the actual difficulty as shown by the number of times each question is answered right, the number of times it is missed, and the number of times it is omitted by pupils taking the examination; second, the distribution of grades assigned by teachers without and with a standard for determining the grade.

This study was made primarily for the purpose of securing data that would point out to teachers objectively the reliability of their estimates of the difficulty of examination questions, the reliability of their estimates in weighting different questions, the reliability of grades assigned to examination papers by them, and, finally, the comparison of their grades without and with the use of a standard for determining them.

As a basis for the study, the writer asked the teacher of the fifth grade in the Consolidated School of Clifton, Col., for the examination questions in arithmetic that she had just given to her class. The following is an exact copy of the questions:

TEST QUESTIONS—FIFTH GRADE

I

a. Write in words, 36, 301.
b. Write in numbers, sixty-two thousand, eight hundred, twenty-five.

II

a. $9143.65 — $6183.69 = ?

III

The material for a dress was 14 yards of mohair and cost $1.25 per yard. Making and trimmings cost $18.75. Find the cost of the dress.

IV

Mr. Brown burned 12 3-4 tons of coal in his furnace last winter, 11 13-20 tons the winter before, and 11 4-5 tons the winter before that. How much coal did he burn in three winters?

V

A spool of barbed wire contains 1500 feet. How much does this length of wire weigh, if 12 feet weigh 1 pound?

VI

Find the cost of 465 boxes of apples at $1 7-10 per box.

VII

A wagon with its load weighs 2 1-4 tons. The wagon alone weighs 3-5 of a ton. Find the weight of the load.

VIII

a. 4-7 of 63 = ?
b. 2-9 of 81 = ?
Name the numerator and the denominator in problem a.

These examination questions were mimeographed and handed out to 147 teachers who are taking extension courses, in study groups, under the writer. Each teacher was asked to rank the questions according to his judgment of their relative difficulty. The teachers were instructed as follows: "Please rank these questions according to difficulty. Mark the easiest question one, the next easiest two, the next easiest three, etc." The method was then illustrated on the blackboard, and the teachers were asked if they understood what they were to do. All understood. Table I shows the results of their rankings—

TABLE I

The Number of Times Each Question was Assigned Each Rank by 147 Teachers

Problem	Rankings								Sum of Frequency Times Rank	Ranking According to 147 Teachers
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
I	54	62	13	3	4	6	4	1	319	2
II	86	44	6	2	2	2	2	3	260	1
III		9	37	38	17	23	18	5	670	3
IV		1	15	22	41	20	25	23	819	6
V	2	3	8	19	14	17	29	55	923	8
VI	3	12	28	20	33	25	15	11	699	4
VII		4	8	14	18	38	26	39	900	7
VIII	2	12	32	29	18	16	28	10	700	5

the number of times each question was given each rank by the 147 different teachers. Question I, for instance, was ranked first, easiest, by 54 teachers; second, by 62 teachers; third, by 13 teachers; fourth, by 3 teachers; fifth, by 4 teachers; sixth, by 6 teachers; seventh, by 4 teachers; and eighth, by 1 teacher. Question II was ranked first by 86 teachers and second by 44 teachers. Question V was ranked the most difficult by a larger number than any other question, 55 teachers

ranking it so. It is interesting to note that Questions III, IV, and VII were not ranked first by a single teacher.

In order to find the rank of each question based upon the combined ranking of the 147 teachers, the frequency of each rank was multiplied by the rank and then summed. The sum is shown in column ten under the caption, "Sum of Frequency Times Rank." On this basis, Question I ranks second, Question II ranks first, Question III ranks third, Question IV ranks sixth, Question V ranks eighth, Question VI ranks fourth, Question VII ranks seventh, and Question VIII ranks fifth.

Later these questions were given to 83 fifth-grade pupils in the schools of Delta, Col., and ranked again—this time upon the basis of the number of correct answers. These 83 pupils were taught in three different groups and by different teachers. Therefore, it is believed that the results of their performances are typical of the performances of fifth-grade pupils as a whole on this test. Each pupil was given a mimeographed copy of the questions and two sheets of paper on which to solve the problems. The following directions were given and repeated until every pupil understood thoroughly what to do:

1. "Listen closely to what I tell you."
2. "Do exactly what I say."
3. "Here are eight problems that I want you to solve."
4. "Do not ask any questions about these problems after you begin work."
5. "If you find a problem that you cannot solve, pass on to another one; and when you have finished those you can solve, come back to the one you thought you couldn't solve."
6. "You will have twenty-two minutes to solve these problems. I shall tell you when the time is up."
7. "Be sure to number the problems and solve them in the order they appear on the paper. If you cannot solve one, just number it, leave a space, and come back to it later."
8. "Use the front and back of the two sheets of paper that I handed you."

TABLE II

The Number of Times Each Problem was Solved, Missed, and Omitted; also the Rank of Each Problem—Based upon the Performances of 83 Fifth-Grade Pupils

Problem	Solved	Missed	Omitted	Rank
I	19	56	8	7
II	43	37	3	2
III	27	53	3	4
IV	38	43	2	3
V	22	47	14	6
VI	11	63	9	8
VII	23	58	2	5
VIII	48	14	21	1

Table II shows the number of correct answers for each problem, the number of wrong answers for each problem, the number of times each problem was omitted, and the rank of each problem, or question, based upon the number of correct answers given each by the pupils. On this basis Question VIII ranks first, Question II ranks second, Question IV ranks third, Question III ranks fourth, Question VII ranks fifth, Question V ranks sixth, Question I ranks seventh, and Question VI ranks eighth. It is interesting to note that the question which ranks first, based upon the performances of fifth-grade pupils, was ranked first by only 2 of the 147 teachers. It is also interesting to note how few of the teachers ranked Question I seventh and Question VI eighth.

Table III compares the rankings of these questions by the 147 teachers with the rankings assigned upon the basis of the performances of the 83 fifth-grade pupils who took the examination. This table, along with Table I, tends to show that a teacher's judgment in

TABLE III

Comparison of Teachers' Rankings of Questions and Rankings Assigned upon the Basis of Pupils' Performances

Problem	Teachers' Rankings	Rankings Based upon Pupils' Performances
I	2	7
II	1	2
III	3	4
IV	6	3
V	8	6
VI	4	8
VII	7	5
VIII	5	1

regard to the difficulty of examination questions is very unreliable—indeed, worth practically nothing.

This study was carried a step further by having all the 147 teachers grade a single paper (reproduced by mimeographing) written by a pupil in the examination.

EXAMINATION—FIFTH GRADE

I

a. Thirty six, three hundred and one
b. 62,825

II

a. $9143.65 — $6183.69 = $2959.99 Answer

9143.65
6183.69

2959.96

III

$ 1.25	$17.50	
14	18.75	
$ 5.00	$36.25	Cost of dress
12.50		
$17.50		

IV

12 3-4 + 11 13-20 + 11 4-5 = 34 44-20 = 36 4-20 tons Answer

V

1500
12
3000
1500
18000 pounds Answer

VI

465 × $1 7-10 = 465-1 × 17-10 = 7805-10 = $790 1-2

VII

2 1-4 — 3-5 = 9-4 — 3-5 = 45-20 — 12-20 = 33-20 = 1 13-20

VIII

a. 4-7 of 63 = 28
b. 2-9 of 81 = 18
c. Numerator 4, denominator 7

Each teacher was given a copy of the examination paper and a copy of the questions, and directed to grade the paper on the basis of 100 per cent. The teachers were instructed further to record the grade in the upper left-hand corner of the paper. After all had finished and recorded their grades, these different ratings were placed on the blackboard so that the various teachers might see the distribution of grades that they had assigned to the same paper. They were then instructed to grade the paper again by the following standard and to place this grade in the upper right-hand corner of the paper.

Problem I.

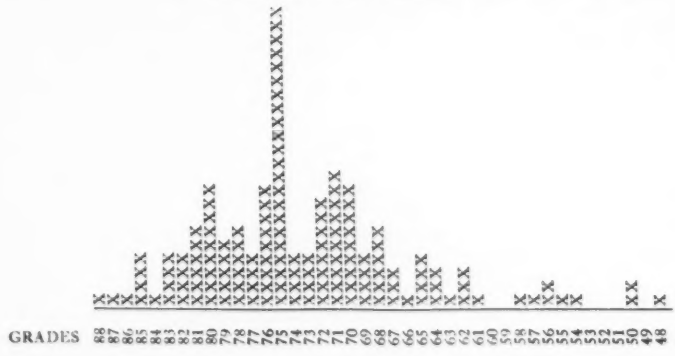
a. There should be a hyphen between thirty and six; it should be marked zero if the hyphen is left out. The next should be three hundred one; it should be marked zero if "and" appears between hundred and one.

b. There should be three expressions: 62,000; 800; 25; or the third expression might be interpreted as 20 and 5; it should be marked zero if it doesn't appear as it should.

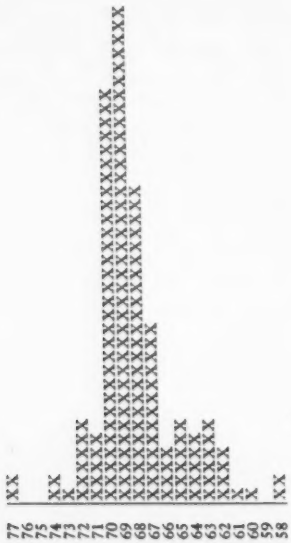
Problem II.	Allow *six* for correct principle. Allow *six and one-half* for correct answer; but if the answer is correct and there are mechanical errors, subtract *one-half of one per cent* for each mechanical error.
Problem III.	Allow *eight* for correct principle. Allow *four and one-half* for correct answer; but if the answer is correct and there are mechanical errors, subtract *one-third of one per cent* for each mechanical error.
Problem IV.	Same as Problem II.
Problem V.	Same as Problem III.
Problem VI.	Same as Problem II.
Problem VII.	Same as Problem II.
Problem VIII.	a. Right or wrong; if wrong, deduct four, or four and one-sixth per cent.
	b. Right or wrong; if wrong, deduct four, or four and one-sixth per cent.
	c. Right or wrong; if wrong, deduct four, or four and one-sixth per cent.

Graphs I and II show concisely the distribution of grades assigned without and with the use of a standard. These graphs tend to show the need and value of standards when grading examination papers, even if the standards are rough. When the paper was graded without the use of a standard, the grades assigned ranged from 48 to 88, a spread of 41 points, with only one frequency greater than ten. When a standard was used, the grades ranged from 58 to 77, a spread of 20 points, less than half the spread when no standard was used, and there were four frequencies greater than ten. These frequencies are 13, 23, 30, and 36, and cover a spread of only 4 points. In other words, by using a standard, 102 of the 147 teachers assigned grades within a range of 4 points.

GRAPH I.—The distribution of the grades assigned an examination paper by 147 teachers when no standard for grading was used.

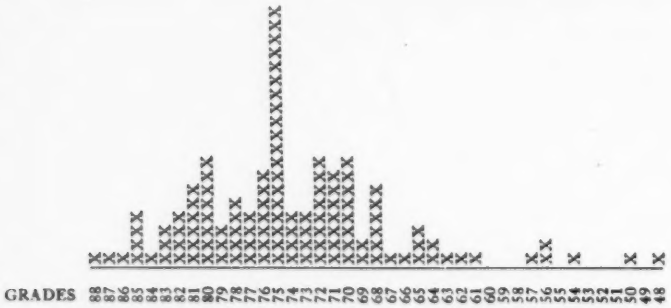


GRAPH II.—The distribution of the grades assigned the same examination paper by the same 147 teachers when a standard for grading was used.



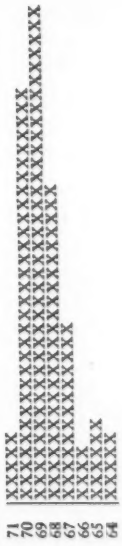
Will teachers follow a standard in determining the grade that should be assigned an examination paper? About 83 per cent of them will, as is shown by Graphs III and IV, from which the individual teachers who were extreme in the ratings shown in Graph II are eliminated. With the use of the standard given, it was impossible to assign rightly a grade higher than 71 per cent, for Problems I, II, and (a) under VIII were wrong. On the other hand, no grade could rightly have

GRAPH III.—The distribution of the grades assigned an examination paper by 122 teachers when no standard for grading was used.



been lower than 64 per cent, for not more than 7 points should have been deducted for mechanical errors. The twenty-five teachers who rated beyond these limits could not, or did not, use the standard set for them. Graphs III and IV show concisely the value of standards for teachers who will follow them closely. When no standard was

GRAPH IV.—The distribution of the grades assigned the same examination paper by the same 122 teachers when a standard for grading was used.



used by the 122 teachers (twenty-five being here eliminated), the grades assigned by them ranged from 48 to 88, a spread of 41 points; but when they used a standard, the grades assigned by them ranged from 64 to 71, a spread of 8 points, or less than one-fifth of the spread when no standard was used. Thus it is seen that the use of a standard in grading has reduced the variability more than 80 per cent. To be perfectly fair to all pupils when grading their examination papers, the teacher must have an objective standard and follow it: otherwise all kinds of subjective elements will tend to enter in and influence the grades assigned.

AN ECONOMICAL SCHOOL PAPER

O. B. POWELL
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How do you sell your school and your ideas to your community? In every reputable business that deals with the public, the underlying principle of its success lies in getting the public to feel a need for the business and to appreciate its existence. Is not your school a business institution? Then, what sort of scheme do you use to get your community to place a value on the school and appreciate the work that is being done by it?

This is an easy matter, perhaps, in the larger school systems, since they are located in communities where many progressive organizations are at work all the time to keep things worth while before the public; but what of the small school systems located far out in the small towns, where people seldom organize for anything and rarely even read the local paper?

Better-trained teachers, with higher salary demands, is commonplace talk everywhere among school people. Communities are calling for college and university trained men and women to take charge of their schools. Yet, with all this, the community is so engaged with its daily business grind that it is too often unprepared educationally to accept without much criticism some of the modern educational practices that will be brought to it through the medium of this specially trained teaching force. As a result, the community not seldom is disappointed, and the teacher's work a failure.

What can be done to remedy such conditions? How may the small city and town superintendent prepare to meet such circumstances? How may he prepare his community for his plans of operating the school system or for any change that he may contemplate putting into effect?

Many good agencies have been proved worth while for this purpose, such as parent-teacher associations, community betterment clubs, school fairs, etc., through which the public may be met and made to understand.

I have used all these and others effectively, but the most successful means by far that I have used in the small-town schools has been the publishing regularly of a school paper.

I began this work first by using space in the local county paper.

This plan was not satisfactory, in that much material that I desired the public should have concerning the school was not suitable for general county circulation. The next step was to try putting out a "school bulletin" by means of a simple duplicating device. This "bulletin" proved so popular with the entire community and student body that demands for it outgrew the possibilities of the duplicating machine. Next, I tried issuing a school paper through the local newspaper, but the expense of the work was too great. We could not, however, purchase our own press and printing equipment, as the cost was too great. I did not let this fact discourage me. As soon as practicable, I bought, at comparatively little expense, a secondhand mimeograph machine, and for the past two years we have been publishing our school paper on this machine.

From this step onward I use very deliberately the pronoun *we*, for the pupils and I share the responsibility and the pleasure. And we ourselves do all the work. We meet all the operating expenses and get out our paper to sell at a cost of five cents per copy. We could ask more and get it, but it is not our object to make a profit on the work, but rather to put out a paper in as cheap a form as possible, so that every home may have an opportunity to read it and know just what the community school is doing. Everything of interest concerning the pupils and the school receives careful attention in it.

To help other school men, who may be able to utilize our experience, I am giving here below a description of our paper and just how we do the work.

When finished, the paper is in bulletin form, measuring 6 by 9 inches, with twenty to thirty pages of reading material. Regular 8½ by 11-inch sheets are used, folded in the center and stapled. This makes each page 5½ by 8½ inches. The actual type page is 4½ by 7¼ inches in size. With an ordinary typewriter, such as the Oliver that we use, a type page is 44 spaces across by 44 lines high.

We write our material in manuscript form first. Then a group of pupils takes this material and counts it out into 44-space lines before it is sent to the typist to be cut on a stencil. In case 44 spaces do not come at the proper syllable divisions, allowances are made through double spacing of preceding words. If this is carefully done, both margins will be even. This makes a page pleasing in appearance. The work of cutting the stencil is no more difficult than it would be otherwise.

Our stencils come 7½ by 11 inches. We cut each stencil into two equal parts, after folding it end to end. Upon this stencil we copy our material, completing 44 spaces across and 44 lines deep. This is

easily done, since the material has already been counted out and marked, as has been explained.

We prepare a "dummy" bulletin, with the pages numbered and the articles indicated that go on each page. This "dummy" serves as a guide at all times. After the stencils are cut, they must be stuck together properly in pairs, so that each newly completed stencil may be run through the machine to complete two pages of our bulletin. With the "dummy" for a guide, the right pages can easily be selected. To make the fact clearer, perhaps I need to say that, for a 20-page bulletin, it is necessary to stick pages 1 and 20, 2 and 19, etc., together, thereby forming a complete stencil that will print two bulletin pages at one operation.

With a wide-carriage typewriting machine, the stencil probably would not have to be cut as I describe; but with our ordinary carriage, the stencil is too long to pass lengthwise through the machine. We tried, at first, folding the stencil, but found it more convenient to cut it and later, by means of shellac, stick the corresponding pages together.

We use regular 8½ by 11-inch, 20-pound bond paper for the pages of the bulletin. With such paper, it is necessary that blotters be placed between all sheets as they come from the mimeograph to prevent ink smearing.

For the cover we use regular 9 by 12 construction paper. The bond paper costs us about $2 per 1,000 sheets, while the construction paper costs 40 cents per 100 sheets. The total cost for material to put out 100 copies of our bulletin amounts to about $2.50. We charge 5 cents per copy. This allows us a margin to cover extra-page numbers occasionally or to cover loss in material.

The work could be simplified considerably by putting the paper out in a simple folded condition, but we much prefer the bulletin form because of its permanence and durability.

Such work as this is greatly enjoyed by the pupils. We allow English credits for written material accepted to be printed, and history or other subject credits for work done along these respective lines. We do not find it difficult to get pupils to work on the paper, for the most of them realize its value and also that they are getting practical training while at such work. Of course they enjoy the publicity for their own writings. They soon develop team work, and those who can do a certain job better than others are selected to do that particular work. In fact, our staff is selected by this means, rather than by appointment or vote of the student body.

Considerable work is necessary from the teachers at first; but after the students learn how to do the work themselves, practically all

that the teachers are required to do is to sponsor the kind and condition of the material to be printed.

Such an outfit as we have does not require experienced people to operate the mimeograph or to cut the stencils. Neither I nor any of my pupils had ever operated a mimeograph machine till I secured this one. None of us know anything about a typewriter except to "hunt and peck" as we go along. We merely sent for instruction books for the machines and followed them.

Considering the small experience and expense necessary, the amount of direct contact that you have thereby with the public, and the training given your pupils, I have found nothing superior to the school paper as a means of developing a community school spirit and acquainting the community with the work of the school.

EDITORIALS

ON THE CONTRARY—

At least one result of the attempt to legislate evolution out of the schools of Tennessee has already been accomplished: The problem has been deferred to the next generation of school children; for, very likely, there is no child in the state who has not learned more this summer about evolution and its supposed conflict with theology than he would probably have learned, under other circumstances, during his entire school course.

STANDARDIZING PUBLISHERS' ANNOUNCEMENTS

Every educator should know the new books in his field. Some of them he should own, but all the rest he should be cognizant of whenever an occasion to need them may arise.

Publishers spend much pains and money to announce to the profession their new volumes. The circulars, however, are not standardized in form, and, therefore, cannot be readily filed. Some recent informal inquiries among high-grade school folk lead us to think that most of the mailed announcements go pretty directly into wastebaskets.

We venture to advance the suggestion that a decided improvement would be effected if publishers would uniformly announce books (perhaps in addition to other circulars) on 3x5 cards containing all the essential information which progressive school people would want on file. A few publishers have already adopted the practice. Perhaps forward-looking teachers can be educated toward maintaining permanent files of such material and thereby gaining a better mastery of the textbooks available for their work.

THE LOYOLA EDUCATIONAL DIGEST

A unique service to teachers has been instituted by Loyola University (1076 Roosevelt Road, Chicago, Ill.)—a digest of the current literature of education. Ten months in the year, after the manner of

a magazine, packets of 5x8 cards (a standard size) are sent to subscribers, each card bearing a carefully organized, well-printed digest of some recently published article in the field of education which is deemed of permanent value. There are also cards containing comprehensive summaries, arranged under subject headings, of the educational literature of the current month. All cards are indexed, for filing, according to an elaborated Dewey decimal system. Subscription is $3 a year. A filing case may be bought from the publishers, if desired.

The PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION extends a cordial greeting to the new enterprise. The digests which we have read are first-class. No recent undertaking to advance the professional equipment of teachers seems to us more worthy of encouragement and support.

THE TEXTBOOK EDITOR

A series of editorials in a recent issue of the PEABODY JOURNAL (November, 1924) set forth certain aspects of schoolbook publishing in respect to the cost of textbooks. Along with the manufacturing and selling cost therein presented, there is yet another element in the publishing cost, which is scarcely realized except by those who have seen intimately the workings of the editorial side of the business.

The function of a publisher, according to the usual view, is to stand as intermediary between a person who writes and a printer who actually produces mechanically the finished product, and between an author and a purchaser. The publisher of *textbooks* conducts his business in a special field, as intermediary between an educator-author and a superintendent who purchases for the use of pupils in the schools. But this latter statement really tells hardly half the story. The textbook publisher, through his editors, has a potent part in molding education, for he shapes and perfects the material which educator-authors are preparing for the schools. This work of the editors in the schoolbook publishing house, though unheralded, has a real part in the working value of nearly every textbook. The difference in effectiveness between one book and another apparently equal in "inheritance and environment" lies, more often than you would suspect, not in the original manuscripts of the authors, but in the quality of editorial attention given to the books in the publishers' offices.

With a somewhat blank look, uninformed people ask: "Why should an editor do more than see that a manuscript is properly spelled and punctuated, and then transmit it to the printer?" To answer this

question fully would be a long story. But think, for a moment, of the elements which enter into a textbook; think of the men and women who in the thick of school activities undertake to write books in order to pass to others what they have themselves tried out; and think of the children and the young folks who study the book, with their wide range of background and capacity. Consider the widely varying conditions in different public schools.

It is oftentimes the editor's guiding hand which makes sure that the right things go into a textbook to form a well-rounded whole. It is the editor who comes to the aid of the too-busy author by perfecting details which help to make the really finished product. The editor, too, has his mental eye constantly on those who are to use the book, with a view to making it meet their varying needs as fully as possible.

We set the highest standards for our textbooks. They must be as nearly perfect as possible in all details. The subject-matter must be well-organized and well-expressed. The text must be free from errors and discrepancies. The teaching value must be strengthened by the best aids to study. The illustrations must be planned and executed with expert skill, and the typography must show the hand of the specialist.

Have you any idea of how well the *author* unaided can make his book measure up to these standards? Have you the slightest idea of the form in which the manuscript of a textbook usually comes from the author to the editorial desk in the publisher's office? There are, doubtless, some experienced writers of textbooks who check their dates and references to facts and are accurate in their quotations, who put their paragraph organization and punctuation in model form, who make effective use of type and show skill in the lay-out of graphs and illustrations. There are a few authors who know how important all these matters are and submit precise manuscripts. There are more who in general know, but have not the training or temperament or time to attend to the details. And there are others—many others, indeed—who, having the ideas and the point of view, produce the groundwork of an excellent textbook, upon which, nevertheless, almost countless hours of attentive editorial labor must be put before the book will meet the exacting requirements of the schools.

The experimental work being done in the schools—progressive ideas, new ways of teaching, new alignment of subject-matter—calls constantly for new textbook equipment which, in many cases, the publisher must help notably to produce. Sometimes, indeed, an experimental edition is issued, so that a textbook may be tried out for a year or more under varying conditions in different parts of the country. This trial under careful observation usually results in perfect-

ing the text to the extent of calling for a new set of plates, which are prepared only after endless demands on the editorial staff. In such cases the publisher must do his share twice before the textbook brings any return from sales.

First and last, it is a constructive piece of work that is being done in the editorial rooms of the schoolbook publisher—work calling for an infinite capacity for taking pains, a broad outlook, imagination, and vision. Few persons know about it. But many authors at least have come to recognize that the making of a textbook is a truly coöperative effort in which the publisher's editor supplies a very essential type of expert service.

EXPERT OR BUNGLER—WHICH?

A pseudo-pious layman was recently arraigned before the bar of justice for treating a diphtheria-stricken child according to what he called "the voice of God." The judge did not see it that way, and, in delivering his charge, said: "Society has found it necessary to protect itself against such as you by establishing medical schools wherein those who would presume to heal must learn the secrets of nature which God has put into man's power to discover. What you thought was the voice of God may have been the echo of your own egotism."

We all agree that the judge was right. We don't want a pious ignoramus practicing on our children's bodies.

Strange to say, most of us are perfectly willing to let anybody practice on the characters and souls of our boys and girls, and never seem to realize that a bungler in religious work is far more dangerous and deadly than a bungler in medicine. Simply being pious is not the only qualification necessary for dealing with the religious life of a young person.

EDUCATION AS PREPARATION FOR LIFE

About fifteen years ago Binet suggested a problem for educators which does not seem to have been worked at seriously, even in our own day of educational researches. We commend it to the students of education who are scratching their heads for thesis subjects and also to practical educators in the field. His problem was to determine the value in practical life of the school training given the children. Binet sent to a teacher in the country, who had lived in the same village for twenty-five years, a list of one hundred names of former students,

one-half of whom had successfully completed their school work and had received their certificates, and the other half of whom had not passed the school examinations. These persons were rated by M. Limosin, the teacher consulted, on a scale ranging from 1 (very low) to 10 (the most successful); and they were also rated independently in the same way by the adjunct mayor. Both ratings were found to agree rather closely, although on occasional persons the difference amounted to one or two points. The average of the "passed" group proved to be 7, whereas those who had failed averaged 5.3. Binet's first thought was that this was a clear justification of the value of the school training, but on reflection he concluded that those who were equipped to succeed best in life could also succeed best in the school work, however unrelated to life this might be. He decided that health, degree of intelligence, and (innate) character were important in making for success both in school and in practical life, and that since the most successful parents could supply better conditions for health and have leisure to give more assistance in school work than the poorer parents, social status was also an important factor. In our day, thanks to the great genius of Binet and others, we are able to measure some of the child's endowments, particularly his general intelligence, when he enters school, and by means of partial correlation methods we can "hold constant" other factors whose effects we wish not to enter and complicate our results. Would it not now, therefore, be a good problem for a big coöperative research to determine not only how much a public-school education contributes to success in later life, but also which kind of training counts most toward such success for different degrees of intelligence and different kinds of character? We know of a collection of data resulting from a couple of psychological studies in Peabody which might be useful in such an investigation a few years hence. Would it not be profitable for various research agencies to coöperate toward giving us something in the future much more definite on the value of education and of different kinds of training than our present sheer opinions can yield?

THE NEW BOOKS ON OUR SHELF

THE SCIENCE OF EVERYDAY LIFE

Children ask questions that do not come out of the book. With an informality that is often perplexing and a naivete that is searching, their "whys" and "hows" are redolent of the home and community phenomena that they have observed. The formal study of formal principles of science arranged according to their technical relationships has never appealed to young people, although it has long been forced upon them. The remedy, we hope, may be found in *selection* rather than in *dilution* of science. Scientific "baby talk" by authors or teachers will not satisfy.

It is possible, of course, to let the children's interests guide in the selection without any sacrifice of thoroughness. Certain authors of science textbooks are trying this out. Their titles announce their point of view. If teachers like these books and use them wisely, this new style of textbook may become almost universally used for the instruction of our youth in science. Perhaps—as in general science—there may be a few pioneers, and then a rush! *Decretum est!* Or maybe not! Who knows?

Teachers may well examine the following new offerings of this type:

Open Doors to Science. By OTIS W. CALDWELL and W. H. D. MEIER. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1925. Pp. x + 333. Price, 96 cents.

A science book for the grades. The purpose, to answer children's questions concerning the major topics which are relatively universal in home, school, and community life. Most of the observations and experiences are outside the schoolroom; and "laboratory work" in elementary science should be outside, where real science is to be seen and experienced. Childish "tentacles of inquiry" is an apt phrase used in the preface. Their investigations will permeate every nook and cranny of the home and community, unless imprisoned within four walls by a stern teacher.

Physics in Everyday Life. By WILLIAM D. HENDERSON. Chicago: Lyons & Carnahan, 1921. Pp. vii + 566.

A decidedly substantial treatment of high-school physics, in which the author has adopted a specific method of treating each division: (a) interesting introductory topics; (b) thorough discussion of laws and principles; (c) practical applications. The *solid* physics of everyday life.

Chemistry in Everyday Life. By FREDERIC B. EMERY, ELZY F. DOWNEY, ROSCOE E. DAVIS, and CHARLES E. BOYNTON. Chicago: Lyons & Carnahan, 1924. Pp. xiii + 716.

Twenty-four chapters of standard high-school chemistry, unique in that equations begin in Chapter I. Sixteen chapters of applied chemistry, treating of every important household and manufacturing art. Chapters we have not seen before in high-school chemistry texts are those on medicines and patent medicines; poisons, tobacco, alkaloids, and glucosides. Twenty-six tables in the appendix and 217 illustrations are decidedly useful allotments of space.

Chemistry for Boys and Girls. By CARLOTTA C. GREER and J. CORA BENNETT. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1925. Pp. xvii + 843.

In spite of the title, this chemistry does not slight the basic principles of chemistry. (Is not every text in high-school chemistry *supposed* to be for boys and girls? Some teachers think the high-school texts are for them; some college chemistry professors think the texts are for *them!*) The book is unique in the really effective use of the psychological rather than the logical order, and the development of principles of chemistry by reference to everyday things, which, after all, are decidedly abundant. There is more organic chemistry than usual, but is life not principally organic?

Biology and Human Life. By BENJAMIN C. GRUENBERG. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1925. Pp. xxv + 592. Price, $1.68.

The three parts into which this text is divided—"Getting Acquainted With Life," "Biology of Health," and "Biology of Wealth"—show the spirit of the book, for these are "human interest" rather than technically scientific titles of classification. There is much splendid philosophy mingled with the authoritative facts of the science. "These good principles [of cultivating good habits, of preserving poise and calmness, etc.] are real laws of nature for my benefit," the student will say to himself as he reads these pages, "and not merely good advice." As in the author's other books, relationships and values are properly emphasized above anatomy and nomenclature.

Early Steps in Science. By HANOR A. WEBB and JOHN J. DIDCOCT. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1924.

There is much to commend in this book. It begins with the immediate environment—the home, clothing, water, roads—and progresses to the more subtle elements of man and his environment. It takes the pupil on pleasant excursions and guides him to understand accurately the phenomena which he observes. The laboratory is the home, the community, the countryside, the heavens. Many practical experiments with ready materials in the school and home are suggested. Many field trips are proposed which stimulate observation and a spirit of inquiry.

The activities are not partial to boys, as many books in science are likely to be. Such topics as household materials, textiles, heating, and lighting are included. The book is more comprehensive than the usual text in general science. This has the advantage of permitting a choice among those units of subject-matter which contribute to the enjoyment of one's environment. For instance, it does not seem necessary to compel all pupils to study airplanes, locomotives, boats, and electric cars. Within the field of transportation it is possible to allow the pupil to study that branch which interests him most. Similarly, the pupil may be given an opportunity to investigate that one of such natural phenomena as volcanoes, tides, clouds, hail, lightning, and winds about which he is particularly curious. This opportunity for choice does not apply to the more practical activities which are included in the text. The science of the home and the community lends itself more readily to experimentation and observation, and also represents the basic essentials of the book.

The authors have taken great pains to introduce technical terms into meaningful relations and to define them in a skillfully incidental way, not by formal definitions. The ingenious illustrations reflect the influence of the animated dia-

grams of the motion picture, which makes them particularly vivid. A good deal of care and thoroughness is evident in the organization of the material.

The attempt to introduce the simple elements of mental behavior deserves commendation. It has always surprised the present reviewer that former attempts at moral training have not made use of the simple laws of psychology. Surely few things are more important than an understanding of the behavior of persons.

Finally, one wishes that the senior author, who has so much experience in quantitative evaluation of science texts, had given somewhere a statement of the basis of selection of the content.

HENRY HARAP,
Cleveland School of Education.

Statistical Method in Educational Measurement. By ARTHUR S. OTIS. Yonkers: World Book Company, 1925. Pp. xi + 337. Price, $2.16.

Otis has in this book produced a valuable introduction to the statistical treatment of data. The book is designed especially to help teachers interpret in a scientific manner the data resulting from their own tests. Great pains are taken, by means of graphs and simple examples, to make clear the essential statistical methods and processes, and various practical devices are employed to simplify the work of calculation. The usual topics in elementary statistics are covered, with constant application to test data, and a brief introduction is made to procedures in partial correlation. The many teachers who feel that they have not kept abreast of the quantitative developments in education will welcome this book. It covers material enough for a beginning course in statistics, and applies especially to psychology and education. J. P.

The Elements of Scientific Psychology. By KNIGHT DUNLAP (Johns Hopkins University). St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Co., 1922. Pp. 368.

"No one thinks to-day of asking aid in any problem of real life from the psychology, however named, which deals with a peculiar world of psychic objects, by the introspective method, or by any of its later substitutes. One turns instead to a scientific psychology whose subject-matter is the world of real objects and real activities, and whose methods are those of all science." It is this sort of psychology that Professor Dunlap has attempted to present. How well this has been done in handling the different topics and how consistently this view has been maintained, it is not possible or advisable to enter into here. The book is valuable and suggestive to all serious students of human nature and of its education. J. P.

Neurological Foundations of Animal Behavior. By C. JUDSON HERRICK (University of Chicago). New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1924. Pp. xii + 334. Price, $4.50.

Herrick has produced in this book an excellent piece of work. He acknowledges his indebtedness, which is very obvious, to Professor Child, also of the University of Chicago, whose book on "Physiological Foundations of Behavior" was published by the same company simultaneously with this one. The two books have been prepared in close coöperation, and each shows the influence of both authors. "Taking its departure from this more general discussion of protoplasmic response to stimuli [as treated by Child], the present work concerns itself with nervous functions in particular—their precursors, origin, and evolutionary history—together with a schematic analysis of the related structures." The book stresses the unity of the organism and its various integrative mechanisms, very important now in the best thought of biology and psychology. It is worth much more than its price to every serious student of behavior and education. J. P.

The Improvement of the Written Examination. By G. M. RUCH (University of Iowa). Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1924. Pp. x + 193. Price, $1.80.

A big little book, a pioneer in a new field which, we agree with Professor Ernest Horn (who writes the general preface), is likely to be "the next big field of improvement in testing the results of teaching." Recognizing frankly that standard tests, important and useful though they are, have striking limitations as instruments for active school use, Professor Ruch undertakes to encourage among all teachers a new type of test program in their ordinary classroom examinations, a program in which the teachers' own tests shall become scientific in conception, method, and result. The emphasis in the science of testing the results of teaching has hitherto been on the test itself; Professor Ruch redirects it to the technique of testing. An important book. Administrators should have it and know it thoroughly. Forward-looking teachers, singly and in reading groups, need it and can spend many profitable hours thinking it through. Normal-school teachers (of any subject) can and should present its material to students. C. S. P.

The Mental Growth of the Pre-School Child. By ARNOLD GESELL (Yale University). New York: The Macmillan Company, 1925. Pp. x + 447. Price, $3.50.

This is one of the most important books now available on the development of the pre-school child. Observational and test norms of fifty representative children of each of the ages 4, 6, 9, 12, 18, 24, 36, 48, and 72 months are given. These norms are of the nature of the several Binet test items, but are not so well evaluated as to their validity for intelligence diagnosis. They cover motor development, language development, adaptive behavior, and personal-social behavior, and furnish bases for predictions of the development and intelligence of any child. The author emphasizes repeated tests and observations at the exact dates of the successive ages given above, for purposes of accuracy in diagnosis; and his data show a high degree of consistency in successive estimates of children's possibilities. The book is too detailed to review here, but we may say that it furnishes very good data for courses and studies in child development, showing what the normal child can be expected to do at any given age period. Most useful and suggestive comparisons are made between the responses of different pairs of children representing successive age periods, these children having been presented simultaneously with the same objective circumstances and test conditions. Thus a child of four months is compared with one of six months, one of six months with one of nine months, etc. The book is indispensable to teachers and to intelligent parents of young children, as well as to professional psychologists and physicians; and it is sure to stimulate much interest in the pre-school child. J. P.

Parents and Sex Education. By B. C. GRUENBERG. New York: The American Social Hygiene Association, 1923. Pp. vi + 100.

This is a clearly written elementary book, designed especially for parents of children under school age. The author takes the position that proper sex education from early childhood, wisely adding fact after fact of a reliable nature as the individual grows older, is a useful and necessary basis for normal life and happiness. The book should be in the hands of teachers as well as of parents, so that the child can learn to look upon human nature in the same wholesome, objective manner as that in which he regards the facts of nature generally. All impulses are good or bad according to the direction they are given. J. P.

Instinct, A Study of Social Psychology. By L. L. BARNARD (University of Minnesota). New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1924. Pp. ix + 550.

This book is a reaction against the view that there are innate in the individual certain rather complex instincts, and against various loose and popular uses of the term "instinct." The author, a sociologist, is rather verbose and not entirely consistent. His thesis is that the alleged instincts are really only aggregates of rather elemental reflexes and habits, organized through experience into unities which constantly change with variations in the functions which they serve. There are set up for long criticisms many views which are not seriously entertained by authorities, and the book omits many of the most constructive and valuable contributions on instincts made in recent years. Too little attention is given to inner "drives" based on metabolic changes in the organism and to analyses of specific instinctive activities; too much is devoted to mere linguistics about instincts. The importance attached to habit systems, and fortunately so, would lead the reader to expect a somewhat definite treatment of how habits are formed, what the motivations are, how the irrelevant responses become eliminated, etc.; but no such contribution is offered. The book may serve to make certain writers more careful about their use of the term "instinct." Its contributions to scientific psychology are not important, but the general reader will find it suggestive. J. P.

The Slide Rule. By H. T. ERICKSON (Boys' Technical High School, Milwaukee). Milwaukee: The Bruce Publishing Company, 1924. Pp. 32. Price, 32 cents.

A worthy attempt to present slide-rule fundamentals in teachable form for students in drawing, even though they may have no more than an elementary-school education. There is a real need for such a handbook. C. H. L.

Prehistoric Man. By MARY E. BOYLE. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1924. Pp. xxi + 135.

History begins with writing; the tens of thousands of years during which man only drew pictures or made crude tools comprise the *prehistoric.* In this fascinating book, written by an earnest student who traveled all over Europe for the material, the story of early man becomes real. The pictures that he carved on cave walls or reindeer bones are shown; the life he lived and the battles he fought are described from skillful inferences that candidly make allowance for the necessary gaps that must be filled in by the imagination. Thoroughly scientific, appealing in style, most *apropos* in the present keen interest as to man's origin and development, this book impresses us with the fact that mankind is indeed a most fascinating study. H. A. W.

Guide to Educational and General Psychology. By JOHN P. WYNNE (Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College). New York: Fordham Publishing Company, 1924. Pp. vii + 84.

This is a little book of questions and references designed to raise natural problems in the mind of students in educational and general psychology and to direct them to solutions by their own efforts as much as possible. It is the result of much experience by the author, who is a practical teacher, and of repeated revisions in connection with actual use. References are fairly well selected. Unfortunately, experimental methods and scientific procedures in assembling data are neglected, and discussions and answers to questions, useful enough when based upon original experiments and observations, are the sole methods employed. While

many of the questions can be answered by a simple "yes" or "no," there are numerous questions of a stimulating kind. Many, however, suggest a finality on disputed points, which is unfortunate; but that is characteristic of this method.

J. P.

The Fundamentals of Statistics. By L. L. THURSTONE (University of Chicago). New York: The Macmillan Company, 1925. Pp. xvii + 237. Price, $2.

This is an elementary book in statistics, and is the result of "seven years of teaching the fundamental principles of statistics and mental measurements to classes of about thirty graduate students annually." It is a simple presentation, emphasizing with great clearness the fundamentals of statistics and various graphical methods which make evident their meanings and their applications to practical problems. A valuable chapter emphasizes the meaning of the "probable error" and points out many current misconceptions of it. Problems to be worked by the student are given at the conclusion of the several chapters. The book will do good service toward bringing about a more scientific and simple handling of experimental and observational data. J. P.

Marcatone, The Science of Tone-Color. By EDWARD MARYON. Boston: C. C. Birchard & Co., 1924.

The thesis of this book is that color perception and imagery is absolute as to hue, and that color can be thought of without direct stimulation of the eye, whereas tone perception is relative as to pitch, not absolute, and tone cannot ordinarily be thought or experienced without stimulation of the ear, and that even with such stimulation pitch appreciation is relative. You cannot directly perceive just what pitch a given tone has. The author further maintains that by training in his "science of marcatone" one may so thoroughly and naturally associate the twelve tones of the chromatic scale with twelve colors (beginning with red), severally natural to the respective tones because of having vibrations which are certain powers of the tone-waves, that in time one can automatically think of the absolute color-tone-pitch and can read and fully appreciate complex music directly from the printed score. At this stage one becomes a "natural musician." In time, it is urged, the student of marcatone becomes able to *hear* the beauties of Nature in all her color schemes. The author, unfortunately, uses rather loosely the term "proved" and the data of science suitable to his purpose. His method is obscure, sometimes bordering on the mystical. He is not a scientist. J. P.

An Introduction to Teaching. By N. H. DEARBORN (Oswego, N. Y., State Normal). New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1925. Pp. xv + 337.

This is a general survey of the work of education, designed for teachers who are entering "upon their professional preparation in state teachers colleges, state normal schools, county normal schools, and city normal schools," and also for those who have "taken advantage" of local high-school training classes. It is also for teachers of no professional training. It covers everything with which the teacher is concerned, from lighting to curriculum making. Professional ideals are stressed, and accuracy is enjoined. It is probably too much to expect that strict accuracy be applied to the preparation of such a book. The book is doubtless helpful to many teachers of meager training opportunities. J. P.

Progressive Composition. By FRANCES M. PERRY (University of Arizona). Yonkers: World Book Co., 1925. Pp. 358. Price, $1.44.

A textbook for two years of high-school English Composition. Conceived from the point of view of modern education, emphasizing observation and report. Puts forward the use of language rather than static memorization of its form, yet provides enough material regarding form to satisfy any teacher. An excellent textbook. C. S. P.

A History of English Literature. By EDWARD ALBERT (George Watson's College, Edinburgh). New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1925. Pp. 632.

A commodious book of the handbook sort, containing concisely written, well-selected information about every period and author, important and unimportant. Beautifully printed. Valuable, but to be used only by a discriminating teacher. It could and would be an instrument of fearful torment in the hands of an instructor who required pupils to memorize from cover to cover. Best as a reference book for students who are actually reading literature widely. C. S. P.

The Boy and His Vocation. By JOHN IRVING SOWERS (Director of Vocational Education, Miami). Peoria: The Manual Arts Press, 1925. Pp. 198. Price, $1.50.

A common-sense, practical book fo boys who are wondering just what their part shall be in the great world of human action. After stimulating the boy to resolution, it points the path to a noble use of man's estate. The language is specific rather than general; the material is designed for eighth and ninth-grade reading. H. A. W.

New Books for Teachers Rich in Help and Interest

The History of Arithmetic. *By* LOUIS CHARLES KARPINSKI, *Professor of Mathematics, University of Michigan.*

An absorbingly interesting book, where arithmetic is seen as a vital and integral part of the history of civilization. Profusely illustrated with line drawings and photographic reproductions of much rare material.

Spoken English. *By* ELIZABETH WHITEMORE BAKER, *Teacher of English, Oak Cliff High School, Dallas, Texas. Edited by* ALFRED I. ROEHM, *Professor of the Teaching of Modern Languages, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville.*

The purpose of *Spoken English* is to give the pupil command of language on every occasion that may arise in life.

Blackboard Story-Telling. *By* H. KEELSMITH, *Instructor and Supervisor of Drawing, San Francisco State Teachers' College.*

A self-instruction course for the teacher who wishes to illustrate her work on the blackboard. Simple, graphic, calling for no particular ability to draw. Illustrations on every page demonstrate the "how" of the subject.

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English Evidence. Edited by C. H. WARD. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1924. Pp. 284.

A compilation of writings by fifty-six students in an advanced class in the summer session (1924) of the University of California, edited by the instructor. Extracts from 180 thousand-word essays, presenting the experiences and problems of the writers in teaching English. Twenty-one topics are dealt with. An interesting, stimulating collection of materials and attitudes fresh from the classroom, full of suggestion to all teachers and trainers of teachers of English. Published without royalties to editor or authors at a notably low price. Worth having.

C. S. P.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION
By A. S. Edwards

Professor of Psychology in the University of Georgia

The treatment of psychology in this book will give the student-teacher clear ideas of learning and teaching, and will help in the direct use of psychology in the practical situations of the schoolroom. *Riverside Textbooks in Education.* $2.00.

SCIENTIFIC METHOD IN EDUCATION
By W. Clark Trow

Associate Professor of Education, College of Education, University of Cincinnati

An inclusive yet simple summary of the scientific movement in education, which places in proper perspective the various types of investigation in this field, and which shows the necessity of scientific thinking in the solution of educational problems. *Riverside Educational Monographs.* $1.20.

AN INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY OF EDUCATION
By Ellwood P. Cubberley

Dean of the School of Education, Leland Stanford Junior University

A stimulating account of the evolution of the educational system of the United States, with special attention to the distinctive features of our public-school organization. *Riverside Textbooks in Education.* Ready in September.

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New York **HOUGHTON MIFFLIN COMPANY** San Francisco
Chicago

Print Shop Arithmetic. By J. A. GINSBACH. Peoria, Ill.: Manual Arts Press, 1923. Pp. 52. Price, $1.

To any one in doubt as to the possibilities of correlation of printing with academic subjects this book should be convincing. It should be in every school print shop for reference and as a source of problems in case it is not used as a text.

C. H. L.

The Pathway to Reading: Primer and First Reader. By BESSIE B. COLEMAN, WILLIS L. UHL, and J. F. HOSIC. Silver, Burdett & Co., 1925.

The first volumes of a delightful new series, based on children's own words and attractively illustrated.

Correct English Through Practice. By MINNIE L. FROST and MARY L. SECOR. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1924. Pp. vii + 150.

A little book by two teachers in New York City junior high schools, endeavoring to eliminate the faulty expressions through practice. For the seventh and eighth grades. An attempt at a functional grammar.

Writing: A Textbook of Structure, Style, and Usage. By JOHN C. FRENCH (Johns Hopkins University). New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1924. Pp. xvii + 385.

For college freshmen. Seems unusually good—worth careful consideration. The section on usage rises notably above mere *rules* and is almost that *desideratum*, functional, in character.

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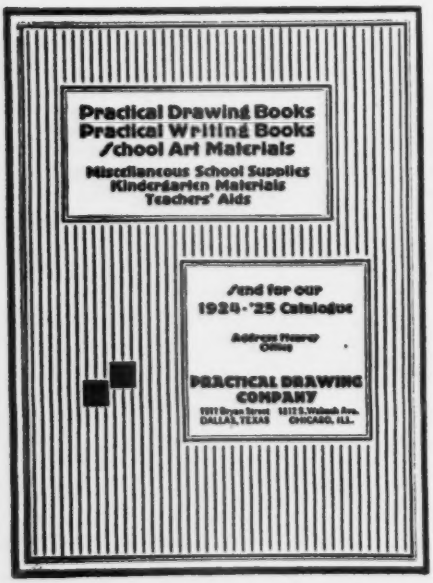

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